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In this issue

Education for Freedom in a Free Society
STERLING M. McMURRIN

State Administrative Rulemaking
ROBERT F. WILL

APRIL 1962

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What Is Liberty?

What is liberty?

You say of the locomotive that it runs free. What do you mean? You mean that its parts are so assembled and adjusted that friction is reduced to a minimum and that it has perfect adjustment.

We say of a boat skimming the water with light foot, "How free she runs," when we mean, how perfectly she is adjusted to the force of the wind, how perfectly she obeys the great breath out of the heavens that fills her sails. Throw her head up into the wind and see how she will halt and stagger, how every sheet will shiver and her whole frame be shaken, how instantly she is "in irons," in the expressive phrase of the sea. She is free only when you have let her fall off again and have recovered once more her nice adjustment to the forces she must obey and cannot defy.

Human freedom consists in perfect adjustments of human interests and human activities and human energies.

WOODROW WILSON

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE • ABRAHAM RIBICOFF, *Secretary*

OFFICE OF EDUCATION . . . STERLING M. MCMURRIN, *Commissioner*

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Brief. . . . . EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT Reports . . . . . .

Work safety education

"Safety instruction should not be limited to the operation of machines used in school shop courses," Ewan Clague, Commissioner of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, told the education session of the President's Conference on Occupational Safety. He also said that "the earliest safety training offered our students should be related to the hazards encountered in trade and agricultural activities, and . . . the hazards of manufacturing should be stressed in the later years of high school." Mr. Clague based his recommendations on the findings of a study of the accidents reported by young workers to workmen's compensation agencies in eight States. Among the youngest workers—those under 18—those in agriculture and the trade and service occupations had the most accidents; among workers 18 to 20, those in manufacturing, trade, construction, and agriculture had the most accidents, in that order.

The President's Conference on Occupational Safety brought together more than 3,000 leaders in industry, labor, agriculture, insurance, education, science, and health, as well as representatives of private safety organizations, the Federal Government, and State and local governments in a 3-day (March 6–8) conference in Washington, D.C. President Truman began the biennial meetings in 1948. President Kennedy soon after his inauguration requested Arthur J. Goldberg, Secretary of Labor, to "continue and reenergize this voluntary association of management, labor, and government." Secretary Goldberg served as chairman of the conference.

Language fellowships

To help carry out the objectives of the Alliance for Progress, the Office of Education has awarded fellowships to 190 graduate students for the study of the languages and countries of Latin America. Fellows will study during 1962–63 at 35 colleges and universities in preparation for college teaching or for work in Government or with private nonprofit organizations. Of the fellows, 100 will study Spanish; 10, Amerindian tongues (Chinantec, Guarani, Mixtec, Nahuatl, and Quechua); and 80, Brazilian Portuguese. These are the first fellowships awarded under the National Defense Education Act for the study of Spanish and Amerindian languages, except Quechua.

Presidential papers

The 1961 volume of the *Public Papers of the Presidents of the United States*, a record of the first year of the administration of John F. Kennedy, is now in print. It contains verbatim transcripts of news conferences and speeches, the full text of messages to Congress, and material released by the White House between January 20 and December 31, 1961. Among the 522 items the volume carries are special messages to the Congress on education, economic recovery and growth, and a permanent Peace Corps; reports to the public on the crises in Laos and Berlin; and statements on the development and testing of nuclear weapons and the flight of Astronaut Alan B. Shepard. The clothbound volume is priced at $6 a copy and is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

The nine volumes of the series previously issued cover the 8 years of the administration of Dwight D. Eisenhower and the first year (1945) of the administration of Harry S. Truman. The Eisenhower set is priced at $57.75, the Truman volume at $5.50. They also are available from the Government Printing Office.

The volumes of Presidential papers are compiled by the Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Records Service, General Services Administration.

Careers in tax work

With an estimated need for 20,000 new tax administrators in each of the next few years in mind, the Internal Revenue Service is trying *now* to interest young people in careers in tax work. To this end it has prepared a booklet, *Careers in Tax Work*, for high school students and their guidance counselors.

"Work in the tax field is interesting and challenging," says the 14-page booklet. Such work, it adds, offers "more than usual opportunities for advancement." It gives information on the types of jobs in the tax field, the employment outlook, location of jobs, personal and educational re-

quirements, and advantages and disadvantages. The booklet does not neglect to report on opportunities in non-Government work, though the Service hopes to interest young people in careers in the Federal Government.

Copies of *Careers in Tax Work* may be obtained from the recruitment coordinator at the office of all local directors of Internal Revenue.

Planning school environment

In cooperation with educators, engineers, architects, sanitary experts, and other specialists, the Public Health Service and the Office of Education have prepared a manual on school environment. Entitled *Environmental Engineering for the School: A Manual of Recommended Practice*, the publication contains recommendations and standards for making the school as helpful and healthful as possible. One of its major purposes is to meet a long-standing need for a concise statement of basic requirements for good school plants by which existing or planned schools can be measured.

The 74-page manual discusses site selection, construction planning, acoustics, lighting, food sanitation, housekeeping, insect and rodent control, air conditioning, water supply, sewage disposal, plumbing, solid waste disposal, fire prevention, and safety. Each chapter closes with a bibliography.

Environmental Engineering for the School (Public Health Service Publication No. 856, Office of Education Publication OE 21014) can be purchased from the Government Printing Office for 50 cents a copy.

Need for nurses

Many American communities still have acute shortages of nurses, though the Nation's number of registered nurses—more than half a million—is the highest it has ever been. And so the search to find new ways of attracting qualified women to the profession continues.

What attracts women to the nursing occupations? The Department of Labor has found that higher earnings, good working conditions, scholarships, experimental training programs, refresher programs, part-time schedules, and more effective use of skills are among the attractions.

This information and other facts are contained in two recent publications issued by the Women's Bureau of the Department: *Nurses and Other Hospital Personnel: Their Earnings and Employment Conditions* (25 cents) and *Memo to Communities Re: The Nurse Shortage* (5 cents). The first is a reprint of a 1958 study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics with a supplement containing statistics collected in the middle of 1960. The second is a leaflet presenting ideas, information from studies, and suggestions for programs. Both may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Program for young people

One community's answer to the problem of out-of-school, out-of-work young people is the subject of a recent publication—"The Lebanon Story"—issued by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. According to the publication, Lebanon, Tenn., a town of less than 10,500 people, using the recommendations of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth as a guide, in less than a year developed programs to provide employment opportunities and community service for young people. The Bureau believes that what Lebanon is doing—on its own initiative and with a will—may serve as a model to other communities.

One project in Lebanon has 35 boys with no college in their future, learning to build a house. The skills they acquire will mean the difference between sporadic, low-paid employment and steady jobs as skilled craftsmen. Among other projects the community conducts an employment service and an expanded program for training young women to become licensed practical nurses.

"The Lebanon Story" is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 15 cents a copy.

Television science program

Stations of the National Educational Television network are planning to show, probably during the 1962–63 television season, a series of 11 half-hour programs called "Exploring the Universe" and produced under a grant from the National Science Foundation. The purpose of the series is to increase the appreciation of science among nonscientists and to stimulate public discussion of vital scientific issues.

Each program will review a scientific idea; use film, animation, demonstrations, and re-creations of classic experiments to illustrate it; and include an interview with an authority on the topic under discussion.

Dave Garroway, prominent television performer, will be the host of the series. He has been a member of the American Association of Variable Star Observers since 1929 and was an assistant laboratory instructor in astronomy at Harvard in 1936.

Agency for films

Under a new 2-year contract, Norwood Studios, Inc., will sell and distribute the training and documentary films produced by the U.S. Government. Many of these films are useful to agriculture, industry, and education. Norwood is presently preparing a new catalog to bring titles up to date. Address inquiries to Norwood Studios, Inc., 926 New Jersey Avenue NW., Washington 1, D.C.

Education for freedom in a free society

STERLING M. MCMURRIN, *U.S. Commissioner of Education*

This statement was the opening address at a conference held in Washington, D.C., March 22–28, to consider the improvement of instruction in the democratic ideals and institutions of a free society and in matters pertaining to foreign cultures and the position of the United States in world affairs. The conference was called by the Office of Education.

WHEN we ask the question of the responsibility of our schools in the matter of freedom, we confront a primary task of education, for quite certainly among the purposes of education none is more basic than the understanding, appreciation, criticism, and perpetuation of the culture; and among the defining properties of our culture, none is more central than freedom and none is more pertinent to the large issues that now occupy us. The problem is not whether education has responsibilities here, but rather what they are and how they can effectively be mounted. The ideal of freedom pervades the whole structure of our personal and corporate life, and it falls therefore upon all the institutions of our society, singly and collectively, to protect and cultivate it and to keep it a viable quality of our culture. The specific task of education must be identified within the context of the primary function of education, which is the achievement and dissemination of knowledge, the cultivation of the intellect, and induction into the uses of reason.

Our people have a firm tradition of respect for reason and for what reason entails—knowledge, evidence, and a careful assessment of the pros and cons of every issue. This is not to say that we have always behaved with reasonableness in the past or to guarantee that we shall avoid irrational attitudes and conduct in the future. It is to say that our civic passions are quite commonly responsive to the persuasions of evidence and that we have built into our habits of thought and action those deterrents and inhibitions that in part account for the stability of a people whose public life is a scene more of discussion, deliberation, and effective compromise than of emotional extremes and arbitrary decision.

That we have such extremes is all too evident. And they do not all belong to the past, for some are with us now. We can look in many directions and see evidences of irrational behavior of all kinds, in public and in private life. In some instances the matter is trivial, or at least of no general concern. In others something very real and very precious may be at issue. Often there is at least a loss of the composure and self-possession that are among the chief adornments of a mature society, a loss of the serenity and self-respect that are the ground of the dignity of a civilized nation.

The commitment of our public life to reasonableness is of long standing and runs very deep. It perhaps is not unrelated to the fact that the large events of the founding of the Republic belonged to the American Enlightenment, and that some of the founders were among the best specimens of that age that produced specimens of a very high order, who believed that tyranny was the product of superstition and ignorance, that freedom was the fruit of knowledge and reason. But far beyond that, the roots of our tradition were in the classical doctrine that man is the rational animal, and that his ultimate good lies in the cultivation of his reason, a doctrine that has had a long and illustrious history. It was the foundation of the Greek conception of the virtuous life and the good society, and the basis of the stoic philosophy that gave structure to Roman law and order. It was Christianized as the basic tenet that the rationality of man is the image of God. And it became the chief ground for modern science and for the foundation of modern humanism with its liberal doctrine of man and its optimistic conception of human history.

Now among all the modifications of recent decades in the intellectual, moral, and spiritual life of the Western World, none has been more radical or far-reaching, and none more ominous in its prospect, than the decline of this belief in the rationality of man and the loss of the faith in his sure determination of his future. That this decline, which has affected secular and religious thought alike and has touched the political life of nations and the personal life of individuals with doubts, fears, and anxieties, has not cast its blight upon us in the same degree as on some others is due in part to the fact that until now, at least, we have not suffered the frustrations, defeats, and tragedies that they have known.

But the threats of irrationalism hang over us and the events of recent years are an ominous warning that even here the force of reason can fail and men can be moved more by emotion and passion than by knowledge and wisdom.

Yet where we are guilty of such behavior, and suffer the losses that it entails, it is within the context of a general commitment to reasonableness that sooner or later recalls us to our senses, restores our balance and judg-

ment, and leaves us embarrassed, chastened, and perhaps a little wiser. It is this precious commitment to reason, which is central to so much that is of intrinsic worth not only in our intellectual pursuits but as a quality of our moral and spiritual life, and upon which so much depends in our practical affairs, that is entrusted to our schools. Whether they cultivate respect for reason in their students, not simply in some but in all, by instilling in them a passion for knowledge and for the quest for knowledge and, in so doing, affect the whole character of our society, will decide their success or failure in the management of this inheritance.

Such a thing as our sense of obligation to knowledge and reason is quite properly seen as an inheritance, for it is something that cannot be created or established in a day. It is not something that can at will be put on or taken off, or be imposed artificially on others, or be legislated into or out of existence. It has evolved through the centuries with the culture, is transmitted by it from generation to generation, and is indeed not simply a part of the culture but an essential quality of its very nature. If under pressures of whatever kind our people were to abandon their basic trust in knowledge and reason, the culture in which we move and flourish, which is in our thought and action, and which at once determines and is determined by us, would be at its end. The future, whatever else it might be, would be a different world for us from what we now know and have known.

In this matter we have no reason to believe that our schools will not in the future prove worthy of their task. They came into being as the chief bearers of the intellectual life of our society and there is no other institution to assume the burden of their responsibilities. But our faith in the capacity of our schools to insure the future stability of our society by guaranteeing that our decisions and actions will be determined by a calm and thoughtful reliance upon knowledge and a careful examination of causes and consequences is, after all, in part a faith in our own willingness to continually examine and critically appraise our educational program at every level. It is a recognition that we have the capacity to define the basic problems that confront us at any particular time and to see clearly their relevance to the proper activity of the schools. Whether it is seen on the domestic or world front, contemporary history is moving at an accelerated pace and in the future those problems may be expected to appear in great number. In the years ahead the schoolmen, like the wicked, will have no rest.

When we turn to the issue of freedom itself, which is intricately involved with the question of reasonableness, the picture is subtle and complex. Freedom did not come in a day. Its history is long, with ups and downs and devious paths. Freedom is something that is won or achieved, that is lived through, or that is always about to be born. It is not something that is simply planned, or decided upon. It must come into being through the life struggles of a people. Clearly it cannot just be borrowed, adopted, or adapted.

But there is not just one freedom. There are many. And it is not freedom in the abstract that should concern us here, but the concrete and particular freedoms that are or should be real and viable in the processes of our society and the lives of our people—freedom to think and freedom to speak—freedom to write and to read—freedom from want, from fear, from pain—from ignorance, conformity, custom, boredom, and superstition—freedom from oppression by both majorities and minorities—freedom from the crushing weight of the state—freedom from the tyranny of the past and from every form of tyranny that can rule the mind and heart and soul of man—freedom to be in the full sense a person whose personality is individual, in whom uniqueness is encouraged and independence is real. All of these and many more are elements in what we mean by freedom, and certainly these and many more are at issue when we ask the basic questions about political, economic, and intellectual freedom. There is much more for those who dig deeply and ask the question of the freedom of the will, with its scientific, metaphysical, theological, and moral implications. And there are matters of large practical import in the issue of the freedom of history—or better, freedom *from* history, freedom from the inexorable determinations of a purposeless fate, or from the unyielding logic of the blind mechanical forces of nature.

Now if there is anything that lies at the very heart of freedom as we know it, however vaguely and imperfectly, as an ideal of our culture, and freedom as we want to cultivate and protect it, the freedom that is so precious to us, it is the person taken as an individual. Clearly, the individual is at the very center of the meaning of freedom for us. His aims and purposes and his acceptance of responsibility are integral to freedom as a living experience. Any serious discussion of freedom and of the ways to enhance and preserve it must come to grips with the fact of the individual and the moral ideal of a society that is structured to that fact.

Here again is something that was not achieved in a day, a century, or even a millennium. The individualism that is central to so many of our judgments of value and is so commonly the foundation of our institutions, that seems so solid and entrenched and yet at times is in precarious balance, is the product of a long and adventurous history, at least from Jeremiah and Ezekiel, who among our cultural ancestors first proclaimed unequivocally the moral responsibility of every person, to William James, who more

vigorously than any other insisted upon the ultimate reality of the individual against the claims of the absolute.

No discussion of the American ideal of freedom and the American ideal of individualism can ignore the history of the impact of nineteenth century Hegelian absolutism on much European social and political theory and its eventual failure in our own country. Hegelian logic, metaphysics, and historical dialectic were imported into this country after the Civil War, but they did not take. Nor did the Hegelianism that appeared in a more academic garb around the turn of the century. It now appears that American thought and practice are and have been so inextricably involved with the particular and the individual that any world view or political or moral system that does not grant full and independent reality and the highest value to the individual will eventually be successfully resisted by the American mind. That this resistance is associated with our empirical, nominalistic, and pragmatic propensities and our suspicion of speculative metaphysics or the methodology of extreme rationalism is beside the point. The fact is that absolutistic philosophy has always had and continues to have a rough time in this country, and where Hegelianism with its ontological subordination of the particular to the absolute, and its political subordination of the individual to the state became the chief theoretical ground for Fascist, Nazi, and Communist totalitarianism, in American politics it went unnoticed and in American metaphysics it was forced to yield to the claims of the individual.

There is no American philosophy, and we may hope that there never will be, for the concept of a single intellectual system which pretends to the finished truth is contrary to our most cherished and basic intellectual ideal—that the quest for knowledge should be various and open and unending. But there clearly is what may be called a dominant spirit and temper in American thought, unquestionably deriving in part from and in turn influencing American practice, that informs the character of both metaphysics and ethics and transforms whatever else it may touch—a radical individualism that insists that reality resides ultimately in the individual as such and that the good, however else it may be described, is definable ultimately only in terms of the individual.

This individualism, which is so entirely consonant with the principles and practices normative for a democratic society, must be the keystone of any attempt to assess our institutions or judge our social arrangements, as it must be the keystone of any attempt at an interpretation of contemporary history that will give meaning to the events in our past and present. It is only on the firm ground of such individualism with all of its pluralistic implications, both theoretical and practical, that we can take our stand against the monolithic structure of the totalitarian states. It is only here that we can justify our way of life and our kind of institutions against theirs. And it is only here that we can look for increased strength for our Nation and new vitality for our culture.

For its working sessions, the Planning Conference on the Ideals of American Freedom and the International Dimensions of Education divided itself into five major committees, each to consider one of five subjects: Fundamental assumptions, curriculum content, teachers and materials, present resources, and long-range objectives. At the close of the conference they presented summaries of their reports and recommendations, which they now are putting into final form for publication.

There is a sense in which the task of the American school is expressed in the task of the American scholar. And his task must always be defined first by the disinterested pursuit of knowledge. Not to stand firm against whatever would compromise the integrity of his search for truth would be to dishonor himself and to fail in a high and sacred obligation. Yet the scholar's concern is properly with the uses and abuses of knowledge, as well as with its achievement and dissemination, and with the state and character of his society and culture. His disinterestedness is his stubborn refusal to suppress the facts, to subject theory to policy, or to otherwise yield to the pressures of those who would restrain him in his pursuit of truth or would convert his abilities and efforts to unworthy purpose. It is not a denial of his obligation to serve those practical ends that are fully consonant with free inquiry and that may even be its essential condition. Certainly one of the greatest of cultural tragedies was the sterility of German learning that removed the scholarly enterprise of that nation from a genuine critical involvement with the affairs of the society and state and thereby contributed importantly to the possibility of the tyranny that was to destroy the very foundations of intellectual life. Whatever pressures may be brought upon him, the scholar must forever refuse to forfeit his role as a critic of his society, just as he must never fail to faithfully describe and represent it.

But criticism in itself is not sufficient. The meaning of education relates to the total life of the individual, and its aims are directed especially and primarily to the cultivation of his intellectual capacities. But the individual cannot in fact be abstracted from his society in either the determination or the pursuit of his values, and the full purpose of education involves the strengthening and the perpetuation of the culture. The American scholar and the American school must now fully assess their respon-

sibilities, both general and specific, and measure their resources against the large problems that now face every individual and that confront our society. Our Nation is in deadly peril and the world of our values is torn internally and threatened from without. Nothing less than our full commitment and determined effort will bring to them the strength that may mean the difference between their life and death.

In the pursuit of these large tasks we face many problems. Not the least of these lies in our general carelessness in the support of the basic branches of learning. Our large involvement in technological education is understandable, but even the progress of our technology is endangered by our too small investment in theoretical science; and our academic neglect of the humane studies and the fine arts can have a seriously damaging effect upon our culture. One of the major deficiencies in our national effort to meet the challenges before us is the almost complete failure of the American people to recognize that the strength of a nation lies in its art and music and literature, and in its philosophical sophistication and the quality of its social sciences just as much as in its physics and chemistry or its electrical engineering. When we raise the question of the survival of our Nation, it is a question in proximate range of statesmanship and machinery. But when we speak of the decline or rise of our culture and the strength of the Nation for the long haul ahead, it is a question of the full cultivation of our spiritual, artistic, moral, and intellectual resources. Those who suppose that great music or great poetry or a knowledge of classical literature are not essential to not only the quality but even the survival of a nation and its culture are quite unaware of the lessons of the past.

Today we are confronted by internal forces that are already injuring the spirit and morale of our people. We have known for a long time that petty demagogues and tyrants can achieve some following in this country. But this time they are raising their heads in a shrewd and calculating manner that deceives large numbers of the unsuspecting and even promises to endanger intellectual freedom in the name of national security. Such efforts must be resisted with great strength, for the loss of that freedom would entail the loss of almost everything that is precious in the foundations of our society. Those who contribute to the destruction of freedom, whatever their purposes or intentions, assume for themselves an ominous responsibility. It is now one of the great tasks of those in academic life to stand firm for the preservation of intellectual freedom and to demonstrate by their own integrity, wisdom, sense of responsibility, and commitment to high purpose that the salvation of our Nation does not require the destruction of its own highest values.

To put it briefly, the large and continuing crisis in which we now find ourselves as a nation and as individuals is a crisis in the liberal ideal out of which our basic values have come, and which is quite certainly at once the genius of and the finest product of Western culture—the recognition of the ultimate worth of the individual person, the valuing of knowledge for its own sake as well as for its uses, the faith that human reason is the most reliable instrument for solving human problems, and the commitment to the well-being of the individual as our noblest end. Today as never before we must cultivate the broadest human sympathies and a genuine identification with the whole of mankind. Our local and national isolations are gone and the provincial attitudes that arose from those isolations are doomed to die. The instruments of education must be employed to adequately prepare us for the new world-mindedness that must replace those attitudes.

It is a basic assumption of democracy that there is a coincidence of the good of the individual with the good of society, that the pursuit of the good of the individual will in some way contribute to the quality, stability, and strength of the society. It is now our task to justify that faith and by serving the high principles of a free society build a future whose course is determined by those who are true lovers of freedom and for whom the worth and dignity of the individual is the proper foundation of social policy and social action.

We must refuse to believe that the historic possibilities of our culture have all been laid before us. We must refuse to believe that the future is closed. We must refuse to believe, as the Marxists insist, that the course of history is determined and that the decline of our culture is inevitable. By the quality of our educational effort and by the force of our commitment and our determination we must justify a new confidence in our power to affect the future.

We must cultivate in our people such a sense of high vocation and high purpose, and so adequately equip them with knowledge, good will, and courage that they will not be frustrated or daunted by the monumental tasks that lie before us. Whether we like it or not, our enemy is deadly serious; his power is immense, and he is playing for keeps. Nothing less will do for us now than a new intellectual, moral, and spiritual vitality that will overwhelm the demonic forces of regimentation that are arrayed against us and establish the autonomy of freedom over the otherwise meaningless and destructive course of human history. Above all else, our commitment to the individual and his freedom must prevail. For those who have known the meaning of freedom, life on any other terms would not be worth the living.

GENE C. FUSCO

Telling the school story is not enough

The great enemy of communication, then, is the illusion of it. We have talked enough; but we have not listened. And by not listening we have failed to concede the immense complexity of our society—and thus the great gaps between ourselves and those with whom we seek understanding.—WILLIAM H. WHYTE, JR., *Are You Listening?*

EVERYONE agrees that the American public school must depend for its strength and vigor on the support of local citizens, that, in turn, the interest and support of citizens depend on their understanding of school affairs. The corollary of these two facts is that the school administrator, carrying out his primary objective of improving the educational opportunities of all children and youth, is obligated to maintain an effective school-community relations program.

Although the definition of an effective program may vary from community to community, more and more administrators are recognizing that all programs require twin efforts: to raise the level of public understanding through information programs, and to enlist community support by drawing citizens into meaningful participation in school affairs. In this article, I am concerned only with ways in which administrators can strengthen public understanding through community-to-school channels of information.

Telling and selling programs . . .

The job of interpreting school affairs has always been difficult. Now, however, a number of circumstances are making it even more so—the increasing size of school districts and the growing complexity of operating them; the continued specialization in administration and instruction; and the competition among agencies, institutions, and groups for the time and attention of citizens. Alert administrators recognize the job as necessary and difficult and make the effort essential to maintaining an effective program.

School-community information programs call for regular and well-organized efforts to provide citizens with information about the accomplishments, condition, and needs of the school. Such programs should contribute to the citizens' understanding of school affairs by providing them with a factual basis for the decisions they are expected to make on school policy and finance. Typically, school officials use mass media of communication in telling the school story to the public. How effective are programs that rely *solely* on telling the school story as a means of strengthening school ties with the community?

. . . are incomplete

In a 3-year study at Stanford University on the part communication plays in achieving school-community understanding, the investigators interviewed community leaders in 82 school districts and conducted a mail survey in 1,054 districts throughout the Nation. Since one purpose of their study was to identify the sources that influence voters' attitudes toward school issues, they interviewed hundreds of registered voters before and after bond elections.

The investigators found that school communication efforts coming out of the central office did not have any lasting effect on the attitudes of citizens other than to reinforce those they already held. They observed that

Dr. Fusco is specialist for school and community relations in the School Administration Branch. He is the author of Organization and Administration of Pupil Personnel Service Programs in Selected School Systems (OE–23014), *and of several* School Life *articles: "Technology in the Classroom: Challenges to the School Administrator" (March and May 1960) and "Pupil Personnel Service Programs: Organization and Administration" (September 1961).*

"simply increasing the amount of information does not promise greater likelihood of favorable response." [1]

Other investigators have reached similar conclusions. The Michigan Communications Study, a cooperative project at the University of Michigan, has for several years been examining citizens' knowledge and opinions of their schools and searching for the most effective means of developing an informed and critically constructive public. After conducting extensive studies in school communities in Michigan and nearby States, the investigators observed that the mere diffusion of information about schools often fails to increase the knowledge of the general public and, more important, rarely changes attitudes toward the schools on aspects of their programs.[2]

Over the past several years, social psychologists have found that reliance solely on information programs as a means of influencing public attitudes may be ineffective. As Hyman and Sheatsley found in their analysis of public information programs that failed in their purpose, "merely increasing the flow is not enough, if the information continues to 'flow' in the direction of those already on your side." [3]

The other side of telling . .

If dependence on school-community information programs fails to create and sustain favorable public attitudes toward the school, what can school officials do to build harmony of understanding and cooperation between the school and the community?

Campbell's analysis of four studies of school officials' efforts to promote school-district reorganization may give some clues.[4] Personal feelings, opinions, and influence of friends and neighbors were, he found, almost twice as effective as a source of information as the "factual" information presented by professional schoolmen. His analysis led him to conclude that "while facts about curricular offerings, pupil services, school-plant facilities, and relative costs are important considerations, even more important are personal feelings and the influence of friends and neighbors."

. . . is listening

John Dewey suggested that there is more than a verbal tie among the words "common," "community," and "communication." Men live in a community, he said, by virtue of things which they have in common; and communication is the way in which they come to possess things in common. The innumerable cooperative efforts observable in human communities, then, are possible because information and action flow in *two* directions.

The wealth of current periodical literature on the subject of school public relations is largely devoted to descriptions of methods for *producing* and *disseminating* information to the community. Typically, the literature emphasizes the need for overcoming the physical barriers to communication through careful preparation of messages, and the use of a wide variety of media for transmitting, storing, and repeating the messages.

But the *psychological* barriers to effective communication present, perhaps, more imposing obstacles than physical barriers; the communication process can be completed only when the message is successfully interpreted and understood by the recipient. Effective communication, in other words, is a two-way process in which the interchange of ideas results in a change of behavior of both the communicator and his audience.

Application of the feedback principle . . .

In recent years, the application of the feedback principle in the new technology and in human communication has been engaging the thoughtful attention of increasing numbers of persons in the physical and social sciences. The stable feedback or self-correcting process of control is one through which the input of machines is regulated by the machine's own output so that the output meets the conditions of a predetermined objective.[5] This feedback principle makes possible the functioning of numerous mechanisms such as thermostats,[6] automatic pilots, stabilizers, and governors and of more complex mechanisms such as giant electronic computers.

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[1] Richard F. Carter and others, *Communities and Their Schools*, School of Education, Stanford University, 1960; and Richard F. Carter, *Voters and Their Schools*, Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1960. (Both studies were supported by the U.S. Office of Education's Cooperative Research Program.)

[2] Leo A. Haak, "The General Public and the Public Schools," *Administrator's Notebook*, Vol. IV, No. 8, April 1956. The University of Chicago, Midwest Administration Center.

[3] Herbert H. Hyman and Paul B. Sheatsley, "Some Reasons Why Information Campaigns Fail," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, XI, 1947, p. 418.

[4] Roald Campbell, "Feelings Are Facts in School District Reorganization," *Nation's Schools*, LVII (March 1956), p. 58.

[5] *Automation and Technological Change*. Hearings before the subcommittee on economic stabilization of the Joint Committee on the Economic Report, 84th Congress, 1955, p. 31.

[6] The familiar example of the operation of a thermostat provides a simple illustration of this process. Levers are so connected to the pointer of a thermostat that when the temperature reading passes beyond a certain point previously set the furnace is turned off. As the room becomes cooler, the temperature reading is lowered, causing the furnace to turn back on.

Feedback is also employed in human communication to improve interpersonal understanding through more purposeful "telling" and "listening." In this context the feedback principle is being applied in training programs in group dynamics.[7]

The purpose of self-regulating mechanisms is to maintain an equilibrium; human beings, however, are capable of well-defined, purposive behavior and can alter their actions in accordance with the information presented to them by a constant flow of incoming messages.

. . . in school-community relations

In school administration, feedback is increasingly being recognized as an essential ingredient of school-community relations. Addressing himself to school leaders, McCloskey says: "The more feedback you evoke, the greater the opportunity both you and your receivers have to reword misinterpreted phrases and to consider whatever additional facts or ideas may be needed to arrive at mutual understanding." [8]

Since it is the school superintendent who wants and needs the feedback, it is up to him to provide the channels through which it can flow. He can develop and nourish several types—person-to-person relations, citizens committees, and community surveys.

Person-to-person relations

While media-to-person messages are prolific and powerful, they are neither so numerous nor so effective as the billions of personal acts and conversations which each day influence such a major portion of people's impressions, feelings, and actions.
—Gordon McCloskey, Education and Public Understanding.

Because of the population growth in metropolitan areas and the increasing complexity of community life, communicating on a person-to-person basis is difficult. Despite the difficulty, alert school administrators encourage person-to-person and person-to-group contacts between members of the staff and citizens in the community.

Discourse between school staff members and individual citizens or groups helps to clarify the school message. During group presentations, staff members may solicit criticism of and suggestions on school operations and hear little-known complaints which loom large in the minds of citizens.

Even small communities have many active organizations through which school administrators can reach large segments of the population—service clubs, professional and trade groups, educational organizations, church-related groups, farm organizations, fraternal, and patriotic societies.

One of the most significant discoveries in the science of human behavior, according to W. W. Charters, is that individual attitudes are derived from organized groups.[9] Under certain circumstances, it is easier, he says, to change the attitudes of an entire group simultaneously than to change the attitudes of one individual at a time; for example, the attitudes of a group can be changed quickly if the forces supporting them are weak. He suggests that information can effectively create citizen attitudes where none existed prior to exposure to the information. And he emphasizes the distinct advantages of face-to-face communication over impersonal means of transmitting messages:

> Casual, personal conversations are the stuff of which public opinion is made. This is where the fate of many educational and other civic issues of the community is decided. The role of television, radio, newspapers, and magazines, of course, cannot be discounted in molding public opinion, but social scientists have begun to remind us of the great force embedded in the most fundamental fact of social life—man talking to man.[10]

In this connection, opinion leaders in the community whose sympathetic understanding is essential in guiding, leading, and facilitating community action in behalf of the schools are important feedback sources for the administrator. (See Robert P. Bullock, "Power Elite in Your Community," *The School Executive*, March 1959, p. 61.)

Citizens committees

Schools have no more urgent communications job to do than to set up efficient means through which the public can express itself on school matters and the relation of these matters to community welfare.
—Educational Administration in a Changing Community, 37th Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators.

Local citizens committees are established and maintained for the purpose of improving the public schools. Some committees are established to lead the community when a crisis or a serious problem faces the school, as

[7] Stuart Chase, *Roads to Agreement*, New York, Harper and Bros., 1951.

[8] Gordon McCloskey, *Education and Public Understanding*, New York, Harper & Bros., 1959, p. 63.

[9] W. W. Charters, Jr., "Facts Are Never Enough," *Nation's Schools*, February 1954, p. 56–58.

[10] ———, "Person to Person Influence," *Nation's Schools*, November 1955, p. 49

when a school bond issue or school tax rate is to be voted on at the polls; others are organized to advise the board of education or to study pressing school problems.

A committee may also serve as a sounding board for the board of education when no serious problem faces the school. A broadly representative committee, sensitive to the interests of citizens on matters of school policy and finance, can help the superintendent interpret public attitudes respecting school issues. A committee organized for this purpose, with the school superintendent serving as professional consultant and the board of education maintaining legal responsibility for making decisions, is in a position to examine policies, proposed actions, changes, present practices, and past performance of the school. The committee can then approve or reject plans and suggest modifications. Under these conditions, both the board and the superintendent will know when citizens are ready to undertake new programs.

Community surveys

The effective administrator is aware of the need for comprehensive and almost encyclopedic knowledge of his community . . . its power structure, its cultural groupings, its economic status and interest, its political structures, its history, and its dynamic qualities. —Robert S. Fisk, Administrative Behavior in Education.

A community survey is simply a systematic method of gathering information—facts and opinions—about the school community and its citizens. An organized and systematic survey in which the administration mobilizes both school and community resources in collecting useful information can pay big dividends. The documentary and other materials gathered can give him background and time perspective against which he can examine the community's present structure and condition, and information on the factors which have shaped the community's major economic and social enterprises. By studying such materials, the administrator acquires greater understanding of what the school community is, was, and can become.

As an aid to administrators in identifying the kind of community information the school needs, the 37th AASA yearbook committee developed a questionnaire guide.[11] It is highly desirable, the committee observed, for the superintendent to involve citizens in conducting the community study.

[11] American Association of School Administrators, *Educational Administration in a Changing Community*, The Association, NEA, 152–157.

Primary sources of information about—

The office worker and his education

FOR THE READER who is interested in delving further into information about office workers and their education we list here the sources used by Dr. Blackstone in preparing his statements on page 24.

Number of office workers

Employment and Earnings, Washington, Bureau of Labor Statistics, April 1962.

Growth of office employment

Carol Barry, "White-Collar Employment: II—Characteristics," *Monthly Labor Review*, Washington, Bur. of Labor Statistics, February 1961.

Opportunities for high school graduates

From School to Work: Highlights from a Study, prepared by Margaret L. Plunkett, Washington, Bur. of Labor Statistics, February 1961.

Keystone High '59: A Statistical Study of Pennsylvania Public High School Graduates, Class of 1959, ed. res. mono. No. 1, Harrisburg, Pa., Governor's Committee on Education, 1960.

Sophia Cooper, "Employment of June 1960 High School Graduates," *Monthly Labor Review*, Washington, Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 1961.

Nature of office education and where offered

Office Education: Report of a National Conference, OE–86000, Washington, Office of Education, 1960.

Office education and manpower needs

Employment and Earnings, Washington, Bur. of Labor Statistics, April 1961.

State consultant services

Directory, State Supervisors of Office Education, Washington, Office of Education, June 1960, mimeo.

Through personal interviews and mail questionnaires, the administrator and his staff can learn what it is that concerns the many "publics" in the school-community. When he knows what information citizens lack, what they do not understand, and what concerns them about school affairs, he can tailor his information program to meet local needs and conditions.

School-community dialog needed

Alert school superintendents encourage the development and use of communication channels from community to school in order to determine how well or poorly the school message has been conveyed, the degree to which citizens understand school affairs, and opinions they have about school policy and finance.

In the mechanical world, the purpose of certain feedback processes is to maintain an equilibrium in a system; in human communication, its application holds high promise because of the essential mutability of human behavior. The flow of information through community-to-school channels can aid administrators and their staffs in achieving greater understanding between themselves and the citizens they serve.

J. Ned Bryan

Education of the gifted

THE STUDY COMMISSION of the Council of Chief State School Officers has developed, after 3 years of study, a policy statement on the education of the gifted. The council bases its statement on the implicit assumption that individual boys and girls differ significantly and that different educational opportunities must be provided in keeping with their capabilities—an assumption clearly in keeping with the democratic belief in the worth and dignity of each individual regardless of his ability.

The statement examines certain basic concepts of giftedness; lists responsibilities of State departments of education for identifying and educating the gifted; recognizes the need for study, research, and experimentation; and makes recommendations. Since it represents a composite judgment of theorists and practitioners, the recommendations it makes are suggestive rather than prescriptive, and flexibility of action is implied throughout. If the Council of Chief State School Officers adopts the statement, it may become a significant influence on practices. But whether or not the council adopts it, the opportunities and responsibilities it delineates represent an ever-present challenge to educators and laymen.

Since the statement has not been widely circulated and since many school districts are making changes in their programs for the gifted, its highlights are summarized here.

Dr. Bryan, specialist in the education of gifted and talented children and youth, came to the Office of Education from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, where he had directed the project on guidance and motivation of superior and talented students. Earlier he had directed NEA's project on the academically talented pupil; served as chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Teaching, School of Education, Rutgers University; taught engineering at West Virginia University. He has been president of the Association for the Education of Science Teachers and director of summer science institutes at Rutgers.

Basic considerations

Giftedness is most clearly recognized in definable qualities, among which are general intelligence and specific aptitudes or talents. Various scores on mental ability tests and specific behavioral patterns have been suggested as indicating the threshold of giftedness; but none can be defended on strict biological or psychological grounds. In school practice giftedness is that point beyond which a child's potential for productive learning, thinking, and creative actions is so far above average that educational materials prepared and procedures devised for children and young people in the middle range are less suitable than materials especially prepared and procedures especially devised.

Considered as a group, gifted children and young people have unusual learning capacities, marked powers of thought, unusual intellectual drives, superior physiques, marked emotional stability, and a high degree of social acceptability. They can learn rapidly and efficiently and read with superior powers of retention and recall. They have the power to grasp underlying principles; to make meaningful inferences; to deal in abstractions; to analyze, synthesize, and organize facts; and to be critical of self and others. They exhibit tenacity of purpose and a predisposition to favor the challenging and the difficult. They tend to be taller, heavier, and more agile than other pupils of their age; to be social leaders; and to have strong interest in social justice. They may be gifted in terms of intellect, creativity, manipulation, or social effectiveness, but seldom does one gifted pupil exhibit all characteristics of giftedness; some exhibit only a few.

Programs for identifying gifted pupils must be carefully designed, systematically maintained, and critically evaluated. In a good program for identifying gifted pupils, the school—

- Recognizes that the task of identifying giftedness is as complex as the trait itself
- Asks parents to cooperate in identifying very young children who show signs of unusual ability
- Follows a comprehensive plan which uses many means of discovering gifted pupils
- Provides for staff studies of the effects of motivation on performance
- Continues the program of identification through all grades
- Evaluates identification procedures and practices systematically.

A systematic search for the gifted must be made among pupils at all ages since evidences of giftedness may appear early or late in a pupil's life. Parents and teachers should, however,

The Office of Education and Development of Talent

Dr. Bryan, whose broad interest in the education of the gifted is reflected in the accompanying article, analyzes in the following statement the services the Office of Education can contribute to the development of the Nation's effort to identify and nurture talent.

THE IDENTIFICATION and nurture of talent shall remain a function of the several States and communities in America. Nevertheless, the U.S. Office of Education can play a vital role in this area of educational endeavor. If systematic provisions are not made at the national level to examine critically the issues involved and the solutions proposed, ill-considered, piecemeal, and perhaps chaotic action may result in response to diverse and conflicting pressures.

The U.S. Office of Education is in an advantageous position to provide a national forum, to develop and distribute tested plans for alternative courses of action, and to aid schools, colleges, and communities in meeting their obligations in this area. The collection and dissemination of information, theoretical and developmental research, and cooperative action are particularly appropriate functions for the Office.

INFORMATION

Current, accurate, and meaningful information about studies and practices germane to programs for gifted and talented children and youth are essential if efforts to develop talent are to be efficient and effective. Channels of communication presently available to the Office could be developed to establish a systematic flow of such information from the Office and from the field to a central clearinghouse. Information so obtained could be related to specific interests and needs of the various elements of the educational enterprise and made readily available for use by those charged with developing talent. Such an operation would require adequate staffing and coordination, but it would seem to be a particularly appropriate service for the Office to render in the national interest.

RESEARCH

Insufficient and inaccurate information, relevant but impractical research findings, and inexact evaluative procedures seriously limit efforts to develop talent. Research resources in the Office and those available to it are extensive and reliable. Through cooperative research agreements specialists can develop and test new and imaginative ideas for identifying and nourishing talent, search for gaps in knowledge, and translate complex research findings into usable form. If the Office encourages, supports, and perhaps undertakes research efforts focused on critical problems and coordinated to involve elementary, secondary, and higher education, it will make a most effective use of time, talent, and taxes.

COOPERATION

The supply of trained talent in America will depend upon the action the individual school or college takes. The Office could, however, appropriately encourage and aid effective action in developing programs for the talented by providing staff and facilities for service to State and local personnel. The Office could encourage the interchange of ideas, information, and research data through conferences, seminars, colloquies, workshops, resource panels, and demonstration centers and the strengthening of preservice and inservice training for teachers of the gifted and guidance services for able youth. A coordinate program within the Office could provide for the Nation the necessary systematic and critical examination of issues and courses of action in developing talent.

be careful to recognize the difference between precocity and giftedness.

Staff members responsible for identifying the gifted need to have a firm knowledge of the types of behavior expected, and an opportunity to study each pupil as an individual within a given environment and to measure each trait in functional terms. Even under the best of conditions, the staff may find a gifted pupil—for example, a pupil who is not motivated to use his abilities in acceptable ways—especially difficult to identify. In such a case only a truly perceptive teacher or parent can detect his hidden ability, and often qualified judgments as well as objective data are needed to make a correct identification.

To identify gifted pupils and then fail to provide an educational program suited to their abilities is worse than futile: it denies the democratic imperative of equal opportunity. But organizing such a program is not easy, and perhaps the most difficult part is determining the nature and scope of the educational provisions to be made. Schoolmen facing the problem might bear in mind that an educational program for the gifted should be based on three inescapable realities: The distinguishing characteristics of the gifted as a group; the equally distinctive adult social roles which the gifted tend to assume; and the essentially changed and changing character of the mid-20th century.

The educational experiences needed to meet these realities cannot be provided for merely by adding to a curriculum designed for the middle range of abilities or by a patchwork of administrative or methodological provisions. They will require change in the curriculum, instructional methods, and administrative provisions.

The curriculum should expand the environment of the gifted pupil and should give him opportunities to acquire knowledge, develop skills, and do creative work in keeping with his abilities. It should emphasize integrated ideas, provide for continuity, and maintain flexible sequence of subject matter.

Instructional methods should be based on the fundamental principles of learning. The teachers should be diagnosticians who prescribe educational experiences, not solely purveyors of information. They should conduct activities calling for critical thinking, problem solving, and social leadership and should encourage gifted pupils to participate in them.

They should expect, recognize, and reward excellence of performance.

Administrative provisions for the gifted should vary with the environment and the pupils to be taught. The administration can, for example, make provisions for ability grouping, acceleration, and enrichment and for human and material resources.

In the final analysis, however, administrative structure, personnel, and resources do not in and of themselves guarantee that educational experiences will be effective for the gifted. It is what is done *within* the structure, *by* the personnel, and *with* the resources, that determines whether or not appropriate learning takes place.

As an integral part of a school's educational endeavor, a program for the gifted must be evaluated in terms of the general purposes of education. Specifically, it can be judged by its success or failure in meeting these conditions: The purposes are stated in terms of the behavior expected; situations are identified or created in which gifted pupils can work effectively; satisfactory means for collecting data are used; and data are interpreted by persons trained to recognize changes in gifted behavior.

Evaluation of programs for the gifted can be based on objective measurements, subjective judgments, or both. Subjective judgments, however, must be professionally evaluated. By using evaluative instruments, objective and subjective, school officials can distinguish between changes resulting from the program and those resulting from other influences.

Both lay and professional persons should participate in the evaluative process. The gifted and their parents should understand the process, but professional persons should design the process and make the critical decisions. The persons responsible should have knowledge about the educative process, the distinctive characteristics of gifted children, research design, available instruments, and techniques for devising instruments.

Evaluation in itself is expensive in time and money and it may reveal the need for expensive modifications in the program. It is, however, necessary for a successful program.

Responsibilities

State departments of education interested in better education for the gifted should assume responsibility for encouraging and aiding others and for effective action within their departments. They should stimulate and help school systems and, where appropriate, colleges to—

- Become more aware of the nature of giftedness
- Establish operational definitions of gifted behavior and develop a common terminology on giftedness
- Help staff members and lay persons understand giftedness and reasons for identifying the gifted
- Establish valid criteria for identifying gifted persons
- Recognize the importance of employing qualified persons to establish the identification process and to make critical judgments
- Devise systematic plans for identifying the gifted
- Relate the identification program to the various facilities within a State or region which has resources for identifying the gifted
- Understand and interpret major principles underlying a program
- Establish and maintain administrative provisions necessary to encourage schools to provide opportunities for effective learning
- Select, develop, and use curriculum materials appropriate to the education of the gifted
- Establish resource centers with suitable materials for the gifted
- Plan and establish experimental programs for the improvement of instruction for the gifted
- Make financial provisions for the initiation and maintenance of effective educational programs
- Recognize the importance of developing and using special techniques for evaluating programs.

In addition to encouraging action in school systems and colleges, State departments should be responsible for State or regional programs for the gifted. Specifically they should—

- Conduct or sponsor research in the improvement of instruction
- Provide financial incentives, for a limited time, to support studies on the gifted by school systems and, where appropriate, colleges
- Provide professional assistance for the development of research designs for studies
- Establish effective lines of communication for keeping department staff members informed of the status and progress of studies
- Collect, interpret, and disseminate information about effective practices in the education of the gifted and the findings of research on the gifted
- Prepare annotated bibliographies of educational materials
- Establish State and regional committees to evaluate the requests of teachers for opportunities to improve their competencies
- Serve as a clearinghouse for resource persons to assist teachers
- Promote public understanding of programs through all appropriate media
- Distribute information needed by citizens, schools, organizations, and agencies so that they can participate intelligently in planning programs within the framework of the State's plan of financial support of public education
- Provide consultants for evaluating programs; interpret and disseminate, for staff and community use, the results of evaluations of programs.

Invitation to action

The council's statement will be effective only if it is put into practice; State departments can see that it is, for they can set the examples, give the leadership, and take the action that will encourage local schools to create a climate in which giftedness can develop. Clearly a change of climate is needed: the gifted athlete and the child television performer are identified at an early age, carefully schooled, and handsomely rewarded; children with other kinds of gifts are not always so fortunate, for society is neither so sensitive to their gifts nor so rewarding of their efforts.

The council's statement is an invitation to educators and laymen to act in behalf of all kinds of giftedness.

Reorganization of the Office of Education

THE NEW organization plan of the Office of Education, which went into effect on April 1, makes at least five major changes:

- It divides the Office into three bureaus, in place of the six divisions which were its former main constituents. (The term "division" will now be used for the first breakdown under a bureau. Divisions will continue to break into branches; branches into sections.)
- It consolidates in a single bureau all divisions concerned with the educational program, from kindergarten through graduate school.
- It places all financial aid programs—*nearly* all, that is, for there are exceptions—into a bureau of their own. Formerly these were organized in various ways: Two were separate divisions and the rest were distributed throughout the Office as parts of other divisions. The change means a general separation of the administration of financial assistance programs from the administration of programs devoted to research and development. It should work in the direction of greater consistency in policy and administration of Federal aid programs and a simplification of the regulations governing relations with the States and institutions of higher education.
- It separates educational statistics from educational research, which formerly were together in one division. It places them now in parallel divisions alongside the divisions concerned chiefly with educational programs.
- It creates a division of continuing education and cultural affairs.

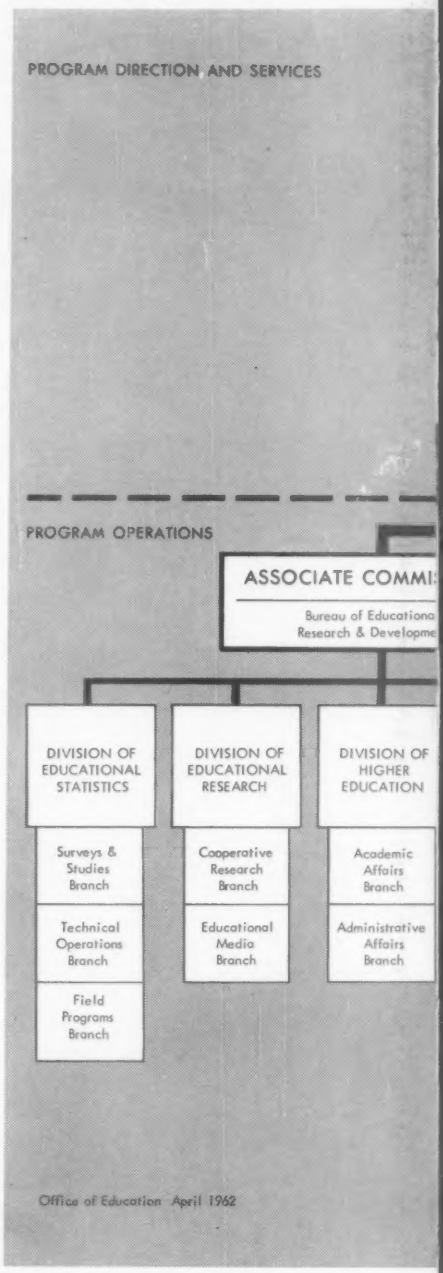
THE CHART opposite shows the details of the organization down through the branches. A few comments about the changes it represents will add to its meaning:

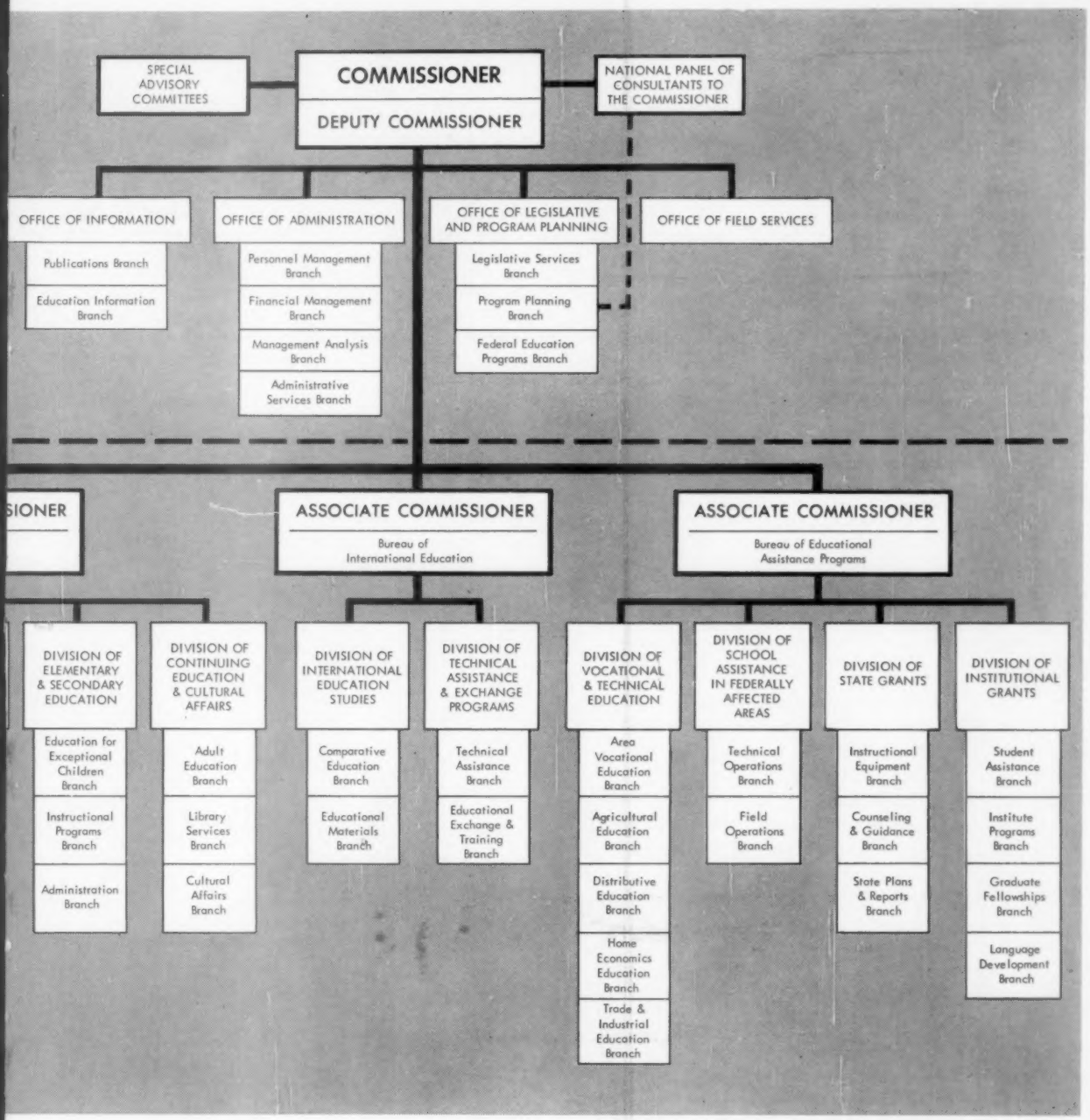
The division of continuing education and cultural affairs is being established because of the growing importance of adult education and the close relationship between education and the arts. Only one of its branches, the one for cultural affairs, is completely new; the others already existed, as a branch and a section, in two other divisions.

Some financial aid programs have not been placed in the Bureau of Assistance programs, which was created to include Federal aid programs generally. They are the programs so closely bound to substantive programs in the Bureau of Educational Research and Development that it has seemed advisable to place them there instead. Among them are two programs under the National Defense Education Act: the one for statistical information under title X, and the one for educational media under title VII. Others are the program for cooperative research, the fellowship program in the education of the mentally retarded, and the program under the Library Services Act. The reader can judge from the names of the divisions and branches just where each of these programs will be administered.

In the Bureau of Educational Assistance Programs the division of State grants will administer those NDEA programs which provide funds for improving instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages and for guidance and testing. The division of institutional grants will administer those NDEA programs which involve primarily institutions of higher education—loans to students, institutes in guidance and counseling and in teaching modern foreign languages, fellowships, and centers for research and studies in modern foreign languages.

Elevation of the former division of international education to a bureau is





expected to bring about more effective handling of the Office of Education's responsibilities in that field.

In the office of the Commissioner, one of the principal changes is the addition of a panel of consultants. It will be composed of persons of the highest competence in various fields of importance to education, who will be available to the Commissioner of Education for consultation, either as individuals or in small groups.

Another addition is a Federal programs branch, in the Office of Legislative and Program Planning. Its function will be to survey the effects of various Government programs on all levels of education.

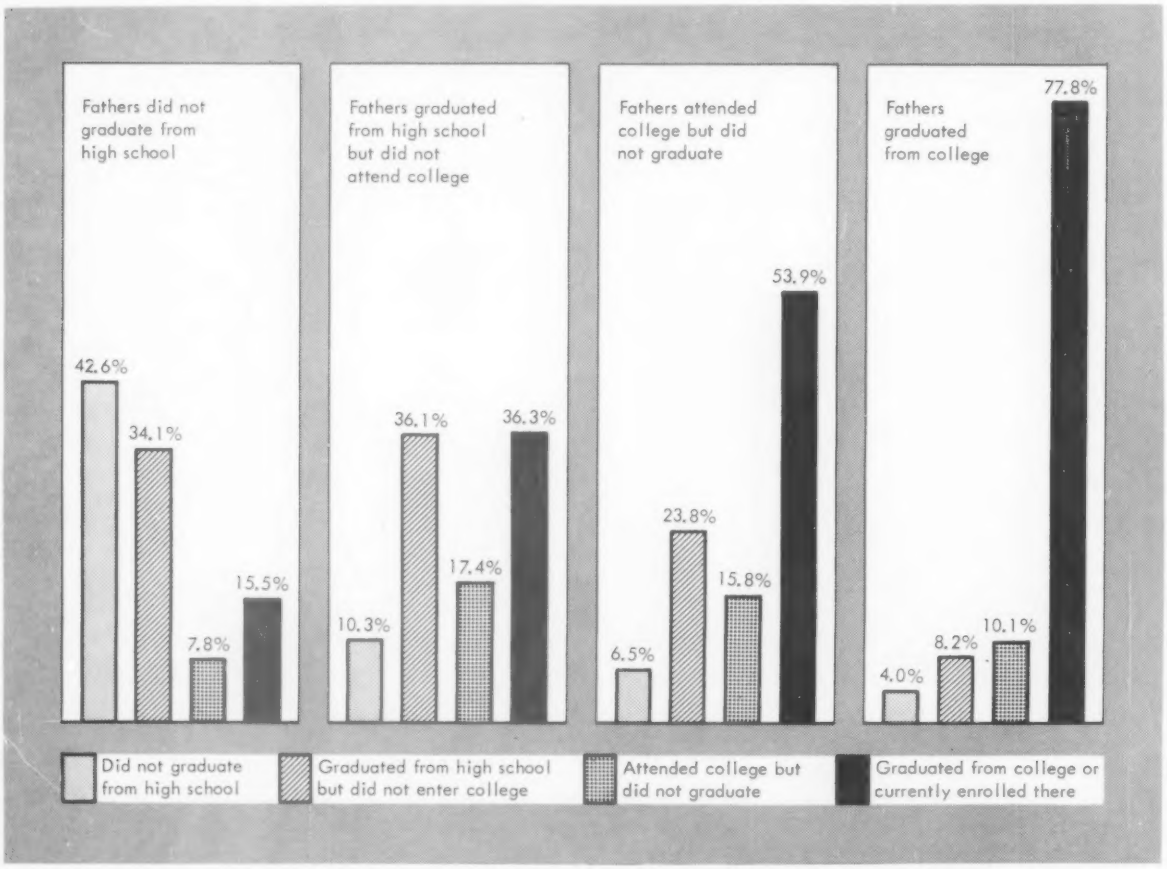
Educational level of young men today compared with that of their fathers

ABOUT FIVE out of every 10 young men have had more schooling than their fathers had; four have had about as much; one has had less. Evidence to this effect was gathered by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in October 1960, from a sample of 4,300 men between the ages of 20 and 24 years.

The Census Bureau's survey shows a marked relationship between the educational status of the sons and that of their fathers. Only 23.3 percent of the young men whose fathers had not finished high school attended college; but the percentage rose with each higher level of the fathers' schooling: To 53.7 percent for those whose fathers had stayed in school until they graduated from high school, 69.7 percent for those whose fathers had had some college education, and 87.9 percent for those whose fathers were college graduates.

A comparison of the two generations shows that the young men, generally speaking, were getting more schooling than their fathers got. About 68 percent had graduated from high school, compared with 33 percent of their fathers; and 35 percent had entered college, compared with 14 percent of their fathers. It is too early to compare the two generations as to the number of college graduates: many of the younger men were not old enough, at the time of the survey, to have finished college. (These data are from Current Population Reports: Population Characteristics, Series P–20, No. 110, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., July 24, 1961.)

—By Rose Marie Walker, educational statistician.



Educational status of young men from 20 to 24 years old, grouped by the educational attainment of their fathers, October 1960

ROBERT F. WILL

State administrative rulemaking

Generally speaking, State education agencies have the powers they need to do the jobs assigned to them. If, however, they do not precisely follow legally prescribed administrative procedures in using their powers, they are likely to be overruled by the courts. Here Dr. Will discusses the theory of administrative rulemaking, the rulemaking powers of State agencies, and their meaning for the administration of public education.

UNDER our system of government, the State legislative power is vested in the legislative branches of State governments and cannot be delegated to other branches or agencies of State government. Nonetheless, the courts generally agree that public administrative agencies created by law should normally possess the powers and resources essential to conduct the work delegated to or placed with them under the law. The commonsense foundation for this agreement requires little amplification. An automobile without a motor cannot run; one in perfect condition needs fuel to run. Recognizing this, we can view each administrative agency or office to which the legislature has delegated powers and duties as a governmental unit of limited jurisdiction. Each must possess what appear to be legislative, executive, and judicial powers for particular purposes.

The answer to this seemingly irreconcilable conflict of governmental practice and legal theory is not as involved as may at first appear. State legislatures cannot delegate their legislative power, but they can delegate legislative functions for particular purposes. These legislative functions are most readily identified collectively as rulemaking, and the power delegated, as the rulemaking power.

Dr. Will, Office specialist for State education organization, School Administration Branch, is the coauthor of a number of Office publications, including The State and Education, The State and Nonpublic Schools, *and the author of "Separation of Powers at the Administrative Level,"* School Life, *January 1961.*

Definition

Administrative rulemaking is the process of developing and enacting or adopting administrative legislation. Rulemaking in its proper sphere does not constitute sovereign lawmaking, even though rules may possess the force of law under legislative sanction. Administrative rules serve to "fill in the details" of particular statutes enacted by State legislatures. They may be grouped under two headings:

> *Rules of agency management,* which identify uniform policies, practices, and procedures that an agency formally enacts or adopts for purposes of internal organization and the control of its property, operating funds, and staff.
>
> *Rules of agency conduct,* which identify uniform policies, practices, and procedures that an agency formally enacts or adopts to permit the lawful exercise of its delegated powers in doing its work. These rules may be further classified as local and State rules of agency conduct: local rules are adopted by local administrative agencies and apply only in the territory governed by these agencies; State rules are adopted by State administrative agencies and apply generally throughout the State.

This article is primarily concerned with State administrative rulemaking, particularly the making of rules of agency conduct. It emphasizes the importance of the rulemaking powers of State administrative agencies that are responsible for the statewide direction and control of particular activities of local governments and private interests.

Need

Some insight into the complexity of lawmaking is necessary before we can understand the need for administrative rulemaking. We should, for example, recognize the problems State legislatures face when creating new administrative agencies or modifying the structure of existing agencies; when creating, expanding, contracting, or in any way modifying the powers and duties of administrative agencies; or when delegating administrative duties and powers to the executive and judicial departments of State governments. We should remember that State legislatures, in delegating administrative powers and duties,

must guard against subordinating the rule of law to the rule of man, must provide prudential controls over the State taxing and spending power, and must provide safeguards to insure the maximum protection for and the proper use of public funds and property. When viewed in this perspective, the very foundations of democratic action are obviously dependent upon sound legislative determinations.

Why do State legislatures delegate rulemaking powers to administrative agencies? Why don't they "fill in the details" of legislation during their sessions? There are a number of answers to these questions.

1. As a practical matter, State legislatures do not have the time or the capacity to "fill in the details" of statutes delegating duties to all administrative agencies of the State. Many of these agencies conduct programs requiring staff capable of meeting challenges presented by new knowledge and changing needs. Research would outmode legislation that was detailed much faster than the legislative machinery could function.

2. State constitutions invariably impose structural and functional checks that make it virtually impossible for State legislatures to usurp the administrative functions of State executive and judicial departments, public administrative agencies created under law for various purposes, and the private entities granted corporate status and powers under incorporation laws or special charters. Although State legislatures can modify the powers and duties of administrative agencies, they have no concomitant power to exercise purely administrative controls over these agencies. They may legislate controls; they cannot exercise them.

3. Individual members of State legislatures are not chosen to serve as professional or technical specialists or experts in particular fields or occupations. They are elected to public office as representatives of the people.

4. Filling in the details of the law at sessions of State legislatures would require corps of full-time professional and technical specialists and experts possessing intimate knowledge of the operations of all administrative agencies conducting public programs within the State. These specialists and experts would need to have continuous personal liaison with the administrative agencies executing the provisions of particular statutes. Since they would be employed by the legislative department, partisan political issues could not be completely divorced from their duties. Nor could they be protected from pressure groups. But, most damaging of all, a legislature with such a massive professional and technical staff would inevitably dominate all aspects of public administration and would make any constitutional separation of sovereign political powers a mere fiction.

Limits of power

The limits of rulemaking powers are decided by the courts. Since the courts recognize that rulemaking involves administrative determinations in prescribed areas of competence, they generally confine themselves to these legal or constitutional questions in deciding cases dealing with the application or enforcement of an agency rule: Does the rule violate any constitutional provision or conflict with any statute? Did the administrative agency, in making the rule, assume any powers not delegated to it under law?

An important consideration in answering the first question is whether or not the rule is "unreasonable" or "arbitrary." Amendments V and XIV of the Federal Constitution direct that no person in our Nation shall be deprived of "life, liberty or property, without due process of law." Rules that courts hold to be "unreasonable" or "arbitrary" are construed as violating the rights of individuals under these amendments.

The important consideration in answering the second question is whether or not the administrative agency has usurped the legislative power of the sovereign State. Since State legislatures cannot delegate their legislative power, they must provide what reasoning men can readily identify as suitable standards and limitations in statutes delegating rulemaking powers to administrative agencies. State administrative agencies, in particular, are seriously handicapped when they attempt to apply and enforce rules made pursuant to statutes that are vague or difficult to interpret.

Area of conflict

Rules of agency conduct made by State administrative agencies are, in effect, State administrative laws, and as such serve to centralize administrative authority for particular purposes. The people of the United States have always been suspicious of centralized administrative authority, particularly when it is used to regulate specific activities of local administrative agencies and private interests.

Centralizing tendencies in State administration strike at the very roots of laissez faire concepts that have led many persons to believe that the local governments and private entities permitted to function within a State under constitutional and statutory law can do much as they please without interference from State administrative agencies. Those who hold these concepts often challenge the rights of State administrative agencies to apply or enforce their rules. They see central administrative authority as the embodiment of all "isms" that are alien to democratic government.

The fact that centralized administrative authority is necessary in many areas needs little defense. A sovereign government that whittled away its powers to add to the powers of its political subdivisions and private interests would soon cease to exist. Nonetheless, State administrative agencies created to direct and control particular activities of local administrative agencies and private entities have seemingly insurmountable problems in exercising the rulemaking powers delegated to them.

Most State legislatures now cognizant of these problems have enacted "State administrative procedures acts" to guide State administrative agencies that have been delegated rulemaking and adjudicative powers. State education agencies that have been delegated administrative powers to direct and control particular activities of local school districts and private educational agencies are subject to the provisions of these acts. The phrase "subject to" is used here to accent the fact that State education agencies are required under these acts to file their rules as prescribed and to follow definite procedures in enacting and enforcing them. *If a rule is not properly filed, it is void and unenforceable; if the procedures set forth are not followed, the courts may declare that the enforcement of the rule violated the constitutional rights of individuals.*

Coordination and structure

Prior to 1900, States had need for few State administrative agencies to direct and control particular activities of local governments and private interests. Most legislation could be sufficiently detailed to establish what then was accepted as suitable standards of legislative control. State programs and services rarely required large staffs, and many could be administered—or so State legislatures believed—by a single public officer. State legislatures found it expedient, under these conditions, to delegate nearly all State administrative duties and powers to public officials in the executive departments. Even so, certain duties and powers could not be entrusted to one public officer. Thus, State legislatures frequently found it necessary to place these duties and powers with several persons, commonly designated a "board." Many of these boards were composed of a number of elected State officials, a practice that kept the cost of administration down.

As States moved into the 20th century, it became increasingly evident that a more systematic approach was needed to coordinate the work of State government. The growing number of State administrative agencies had so increased the work of State legislatures that it was no longer possible for them to enact legislation in sufficient detail to guide those delegated the responsibility for executing its provisions. Reorganization on departmental lines provided one key to coordination, but departmentalization, in turn, presented separation-of-powers complications that have not yet been fully resolved. Most States had formed administrative departments early in the 1800's, usually under constitutionally designated executive officers. Thus, many States had come to look upon administrative functions as executive functions. In creating new departments for related State programs that did not fit into any of the existing departments, many legislatures chose to place them under single administrative officers who served directly under and at the pleasure of the chief executive officer of the State—the governor.

These practices have created many structural and organizational problems in State government. State legislatures, for example, have been reluctant to place with State administrative departments headed by a single officer rulemaking powers to regulate particular activities of local governments and private interests. Their concern is understandable since rulemaking under executive or one-man control is easily confused with sovereign lawmaking.

Those who have seriously studied these problems are divided as to the best means of solving them. Political scientists, for example, generally favor making the governor of the State the chief administrative officer to solve the problems of administrative coordination. They believe that State legislatures can overcome most separation-of-powers conflicts by providing statutory procedural safeguards. Even so, they do acknowledge the need for departmental boards to exercise quasi-legislative (rulemaking) or quasi-judicial powers for special purposes. Educators generally hold that State education agencies should not be subject to the administrative direction and control of the governor. They believe that State education agencies should possess distinct legislative and executive components or parts to effect a complete separation of these powers at the administrative level. They believe that the legislative components, constituted as boards, should make the administrative rules and determine the policies that direct and control educational activities in the State.

Print of flags

The Pan American Union publishes a color print of the flags and coats of arms of the 21 American republics who make up the Organization of American States. Though the print is suitable for framing (10¾″ by 17¾″), each insignia is spaced to permit clipping for use in projects on individual countries.

The price for each copy is 10 cents. Purchase from the Sales and Promotion Division, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C.

J. Scott Hunter

Turnover among beginning teachers—a followup

Teacher turnover, which includes not only teachers leaving the profession but teachers transferring to other school districts, has reached large proportions in the United States. In 1959–60, as one of our recent articles pointed out, 13 percent of the total staff in the public schools left their jobs; 8 percent left teaching altogether. Because turnover is believed to be most common among teachers in the first 5 years of teaching, the Office of Education has had a special interest in it from the standpoint of these teachers, particularly the beginners. Mr. Hunter reports here on one of the Office's most recent studies and relates the findings to the school administrator, for whom teacher turnover is one of the hard facts of life.

IN THE SPRING of school year 1956–57 the Office of Education asked about one-tenth of the Nation's first-year teachers to give their "best guess" as to what they would be doing the next year. The replies showed that nearly 30 percent planned to leave their jobs: 17 percent, to transfer to some other school district; 12 percent to abandon teaching.

The Office used these "guesses" as a basis for making predictions of turnover among beginning teachers. It reported the results with some reservation, however, for it recognized that there are many contingencies which may alter the firmest of intentions: The lure of unexpected opportunity in another occupation, a surprise greeting from a draft board, an unexpected proposal of marriage. Any of these can put an abrupt end to a teacher's plans to continue teaching, just as failure to find a more desirable job, rejection by a draft board, or a broken engagement can make a teacher decide to continue in the profession he or she had planned to leave.

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In an effort to measure the degree of confidence with which it could use teachers' statements of intention for making predictions of teacher turnover, the Office in the fall of 1957 made a followup survey of a subsample of the same teachers—about one-fourth of the teachers in the original survey—and then compared the course of action they had planned in the spring with the one they were actually taking in the fall.

The replies showed that the subsample (1,987 respondents) was divided among the various courses of action in almost the same proportions as the original sample (7,150 respondents) had indicated it would be (percentages in the first column below do not add to 100 because of rounding):

Course of action	*Percent of original sample planning the course of action*	*Percent of subsample following the course* [1]
Continue in education	87	86
Teach in same district	68	68
Teach in another district	17	15
Accept other educational responsibilities	2	3
Leave education	12	14
For homemaking	5	7
For military service	3	2
For another occupation	3	3
For other reasons	1	2

[1] Since the sample used in the followup study was not self-weighting, it was necessary to weight the results before computing percentages. The reader should not apply these percentages to the number in the weighted sample.

The correspondence between plans and actuality was equally close when the respondents were grouped by such characteristics as sex, marital status, age, and degree of satisfaction with teaching.

The remarkably close agreement between the percentage of teachers planning a certain course of action for the following year and the percentage actually taking it shows that teachers' statements of intention can be used to obtain highly accurate predictions of the *rate* of turnover. They are less useful, however, for predicting the behavior of the *individual*. A tabulation of the individual replies in the followup survey shows that the percentages of those for whom we had predicted correctly varied

widely among the various courses of action—from 91 percent of those who were still teaching in the same district to 43 percent of those who had entered some other occupation:

Course of action	Number following the course of action	Percent for whom we had predicted correctly
Continue in education	1,127	84
Teach in same district	461	91
Teach in another district	498	61
Leave education	761	62
For homemaking	314	82
For military service	188	58
For another occupation	177	43

The fact that the teachers' statements of intention can be used with more precision to predict turnover rate than to predict individual behavior apparently results from a nearly perfect balancing of the contingencies that can disrupt the beginning teacher's plans.

The correctness of an individual's prediction was found to be somewhat related to the confidence with which it had been made. Teachers' attitudes toward their plans in the spring of the year can range widely, from almost complete confidence if they have already signed contracts for the next year, to extreme uncertainty if they are still seeking appointments. At the time of the first survey, therefore, the Office had asked each teacher, "How certain do you feel?" and had suggested four answers to choose from—*fairly* or *very certain*, *fairly* or *very uncertain*. In the second survey, as was to be expected, the teachers who in the spring had felt "very certain" turned out to have been more correct in their predictions than all the others taken together:

Course of action	Number who had been "very certain"	Percent following the course planned
Continue in education	568	91
Teach in same district	282	95
Teach in another district	199	78
Leave education	425	73
For homemaking	215	85
For military service	121	74
For another occupation	55	55

By cross-tabulating the results of the two surveys, the Office determined what courses of action were taken by teachers whose original plans were changed (not all of the following groups add to 100 percent because they do not include persons engaged in activities infrequently mentioned by the respondents):

Of those who had planned to continue teaching in the same district—
91 percent did so
5 percent transferred to another district
2 percent left education—half to become homemakers and half to enter some other occupation.

Of those who had planned to transfer to another school district—
61 percent did so
21 percent remained in the same district
14 percent left education—half to become homemakers and half to enter some other occupation.

Of those who had planned to leave for full-time homemaking (all women)—
82 percent did so
7 percent remained in the same district
9 percent transferred to another district
1 percent entered some other occupation.

Of those who had planned to leave for military service—
58 percent did so
27 percent remained in the same district
7 percent transferred to another district
5 percent became homemakers or entered some other occupation.

Of those who had planned to enter some other occupation—
43 percent did so
26 percent remained in the same district
16 percent transferred to another district
8 percent became homemakers.

Not all the error in our predictions is the result of unexpected events that disrupted the teachers' plans. Some is the result of the teachers' own changes in career goals. To determine the extent of these changes we asked this question in both surveys: "What is the likelihood of your leaving classroom teaching within the next 5 years?" Respondents could choose among these answers: *I definitely will leave, I probably will leave, I might leave but it is not likely*, and *it is extremely unlikely*.

A cross-tabulation of the replies in each survey revealed how many teachers had changed their career plans between the spring of their first year of teaching and the following fall. One-fifth of those who in the spring had said they "definitely" or "probably" would leave within 5 years changed their minds to "not likely" or "extremely unlikely." This change was balanced almost exactly by an opposite change; i.e., about the same proportion of those who had expected to continue teaching were of a different mind by fall.

The pattern of change in men's career plans was quite different from that in women's:

Original plan	Percentage of men changing their plans	Percentage of women changing their plans
Continue teaching	13	26
Leave teaching	46	13

Obviously the process of choosing an occupation, which begins at least in college with decisions about a course of study and continues into the selection of a first job, continues even in the first years of teaching. The relatively high turnover it entails among first-year teachers represents a high cost to employing school systems. Yet the extent to which school administrators can take action to reduce this cost is problematic: many changes in career plans are based on major changes in the lives of young

people—changes beyond the power of school administrators to influence. High turnover among beginning teachers is one of the facts of life with which school administrators must live.

However, the fact that the percentage of those planning to leave teaching within 5 years was not substantially reduced in the second year, even after the 14 percent who taught only 1 year had departed, may present a problem of a somewhat different order. Although many of those planning to leave are women who anticipate family responsibilities, at least for a few years, there is evidence here that many beginning teachers look upon teaching not as a career but as a stepping stone to some other field. Perhaps this is the problem that deserves most of our attention in the effort to conserve human resources in education.

Bruce I. Blackstone, specialist, office education, answers some questions on—

The office worker and his education

What is the role of the office worker in our economy?

He is a "facilitator": he records, coordinates, and reports the facts and activities that support production and distribution. In other words, his job is to place at management's elbow all the information it needs for making decisions.

How many office workers are there?

About 10 million or 15.2 percent of the total number employed. They account for 30.8 percent of all employed women, 7.1 percent of the men; and they make up the second largest employment group in the Nation.

Is office employment growing?

Yes! Between 1900 and 1950 it increased 725 percent; between 1950 and 1960, 32 percent. By 1975, estimates say, 13.7 million people will be working in offices.

The reasons for the persistently high demand for skilled office workers are basic: The office worker is needed in every community, large or small, and in every type of activity; the population is growing; and more information about more items is being collected from more places.

Why does office work attract so many people?

Offices have need for a great variety of skills, temperaments, and tastes. Some jobs are routine and simple; some are extremely complex and require the highest abilities. There are opportunities here for mature women without previous job experience, for elderly people who want only part-time work, for handicapped people. Moreover, the environment is generally pleasant, and the personal associations are satisfying and stimulating.

What are office opportunities for H.S. graduates?

Good. The Bureau of Labor Statistics studied 22,000 students, found that 66 percent of the girls who stayed to graduate—but only 11 percent of the girls who dropped out—got office jobs. BLS also studied employed young people who had graduated in 1960, found that 39.9 percent—10.7 percent of the boys, 60.9 percent of the girls—were in offices. And a Pennsylvania study found that 12.7 percent of all graduates—22.3 percent of the girls—were in office jobs.

What is an office education?

It is vocational education for a career in office work: it prepares people to produce services *for* business. It makes them expert in one or more of the many techniques and procedures used in the modern office, in such fields as automation, operational systems, data processing, and the coordinating and communicating of information.

Office education, therefore, is not synonymous with basic business education, which is needed by every consumer of the products and services of business and which is essential for an economically literate society. But a strong office education program is the best friend of basic business education: if the latter is needed by everyone, it is doubly needed by the office worker.

The primary goal of an office education program is to meet national manpower needs by developing to the maximum the potential of those persons who will follow an office career; that is, it seeks to serve both the individual and society. At the same time it supports the goals of general education and emphasizes the development of civic virtues and social efficiency.

Where is this education offered?

In high schools, post-high-school and adult-education programs, junior colleges, and universities, as well as in private business schools and the intraining programs provided by industry. Interest at the university level is mainly in teacher training, supported by programs in secretarial studies, office management, and similar programs.

Does business education reflect manpower needs?

Probably not. Most training programs have been designed for stenographic workers, yet not even 3 in 10 office jobs require stenography. Nonstenographic fields should have more emphasis—but not at the expense of the stenographic.

Is there enough State leadership?

Only 13 States give full-time consultive services to teachers in office education; 12 give part-time service; 28 give none. These figures point out a great need: the future of office education programs depends on the extent and quality of State leadership. (For primary sources see p. 12.)

AD Minutes Briefly noted--- for the busy School Administrator

Material for this department is prepared by the staff of the School Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems

For the handicapped. With the approval of the Texas State Board of Education, J. W. Edgar, State commissioner of education, has established a new office of assistant commissioner to coordinate and develop programs of special education, vocational rehabilitation, disability determination, the Texas School for the Blind, and the Texas School for the Deaf.

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More men teachers. The number of men teachers in Iowa public schools has increased since the 1950–51 school year: in the 510 districts maintaining approved high schools, from 51 percent to 64 percent; in junior high schools, from 38 to 52 percent; and in elementary schools from 3 to 7 percent. Women teachers still outnumber men; they make up 68.8 percent of the total staff.

★ ★ ★

Bible reading in public schools. Speaking for a three-judge Federal Court, Circuit Judge John Biggs, Jr., has ruled that the Pennsylvania law (24 PS S 15 1516) requiring the reading of 10 verses of the Bible each school day violates the "Establishment of Religion" clause of the U.S. Constitution. (In *Schempp* v. *School District of Abington,* No. 24119, 1962.)

★ ★ ★

Research in Michigan. Stimulated by the State Department of Public Instruction, Michigan has formed a council to bring State education agencies and institutions together to coordinate and disseminate information on educational research. Each member agency will survey the research being conducted in its own organization and report the findings in a series of publications planned and issued by the council.

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Materials center established. The Colorado Department of Education has established a new instructional materials center in its State office. It will contain textbooks covering subjects at all levels, encyclopedias, and guides and courses of study from school districts and State departments. Materials will be available on loan to Colorado school districts. William L. Miller, who heads the secondary education section, is coordinating the project.

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Federal funds for Missouri. In academic year 1960–61 high school districts in Missouri received from the Federal Government $8.6 million for vocational education, National Defense Act programs, federally impacted areas, school lunch and milk; in addition they received food commodities valued at $3.5 million. The Missouri State Teachers Association reports these facts in a recently published booklet.

★ ★ ★

Exodus in Nebraska. The exodus from teaching of 1961 graduates of Nebraska's 4-year colleges and universities who prepared to teach is creating a serious problem, the State department of education reports. Of the 1,103 graduates with teaching majors in high school subjects, only 565, or 51.2 percent, are teaching in Nebraska schools; and of the 670 with teaching majors in elementary education only 274, or 40.9 percent, are teaching in Nebraska schools.

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EDP newsletter born. Chicago Teachers College (North) has launched a bimonthly newsletter on data processing. Its purpose is to disseminate information on current trends and developments and future prospects in educational data processing.

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More money for Texas teachers. Under the new salary schedule, which raises the State minimum for teachers with a bachelor's degree from $3,204 to $4,014, nearly half of the Texas teachers will get an estimated average increase of $810 a year. The average increase for all teachers is $680.

★ ★ ★

Link between home and school. The Dunbar Elementary School, located in a disadvantaged neighborhood in Philadelphia, has organized a block commander organization of parents. The commanders—currently there are 56—are responsible for seeing that the families in their blocks receive and understand school messages and that they take advantage of the school's educational and cultural programs.

★ ★ ★

Trends in school construction. *Construction Review,* in a recent issue, points to the growing interest in new types of low-cost materials and techniques of construction: painted concrete blocks; soundproof movable walls and partitions; plastic adhesives which permit economical, stronger, and quicker construction; laminated wood for arches and beams; and, generally, lighter materials in one-story buildings.

★ ★ ★

For jobless youth. The future welfare of the southern region will depend in large measure on the full development of its young people. This is the conclusion of *Southern High Schools and Jobless Youth,* by Samuel P. Wig-

SCHOOL BONDS—

Sales, Interest Rates, et cetera

A monthly report by ELMER C. DEERING, *Office of Education specialist on financing school facilities.*

SCHOOL BONDS KEPT pace with other municipal bonds in 1961 to set a new high record of sales. Sales of municipals rose to $8.34 billion, 8.6 percent above their previous high in 1959; sales of school bonds rose to $2.44 billion—8 percent, or $180 million, above their previous high of $2.26 billion in 1958.

In all but one of the last 5 years (1957 through 1961) school bond sales have exceeded $2 billion. In 1961 they constituted 29.3 percent of all the municipal bonds sold in the primary market—a relative position they have maintained, on the average, over the past 5 years:

Year	Sales of municipal bonds	Sales of school bonds	
		Amount	Percent of municipal bonds
	Billions	*Billions*	
1957	$6.96	$2.22	31.9
1958	7.45	2.26	30.3
1959	7.68	1.90	24.7
1960	7.23	2.21	30.9
1961	8.34	2.44	29.3
Total	37.66	11.03	29.3

Average monthly interest rates on school bonds in 1961 reached a peak of 3.59 in August; but since then they have steadily declined. The effect of the high average in August was to interrupt, in the third quarter, the downward trend in quarterly rates (a trend which has persisted for more than 2½ years):

January–March	3.44	July–September	3.54
April–June	3.42	October–December	3.42

Average net interest cost of Moody-rated bonds sold on the primary market for public school purposes, December 1960 to December 1961, by rating

Period	Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	All rated bonds
1959–60	3.26	3.63	3.77	4.21	4.55	3.84
1960–61	2.82	3.34	3.43	3.75	3.97	3.48
1960: December	2.80	3.09	3.45	3.78	4.18	3.51
1961:						
January	2.66	3.57	3.39	3.79	3.66	3.52
February	2.85	3.16	3.22	3.50	3.86	3.28
March	3.12	3.19	3.44	3.70	4.06	3.46
April	.....	3.20	3.39	3.75	4.28	3.45
May	2.92	3.22	3.31	3.70	4.06	3.38
June	3.01	3.19	3.44	3.65	4.15	3.47
July	2.97	3.25	3.38	3.73	4.21	3.41
August	2.93	3.65	3.47	3.81	4.25	3.59
September	3.08	3.25	3.52	3.75	.....	3.51
October	.....	3.39	3.29	3.70	4.17	3.45
November	.....	3.16	3.37	3.75	3.89	3.43
December	2.97	3.25	3.37	3.76	4.15	3.40

Source: Investment Bankers Association, which reports with a Moody rating all sales by issuing agencies (school districts, States, counties, cities, towns, townships, and schoolbuilding holding companies) that had more than $600,000 worth of bonds outstanding at the time of sale—in other words, about 75–80 percent of all sales. Each month the Office of Education adjusts the figures to include sales reported too late for inclusion in the month preceding.

gins, one of a number of studies the Center for Southern Education Studies at George Peabody College for Teachers is making with the aid of a grant from the General Education Board. The needs of the young people for assistance in making the transition from school to work and for vocational guidance, job training, and placement can be met, the report says, by southern high schools working individually and in cooperation with other agencies.

★ ★ ★

Pupil transportation workshop. The second annual workshop for local supervisors of pupil transportation, cooperatively directed by the Ohio State Department of Education and the College of Education, Ohio University, will be held on the university campus at Athens, July 23–27, 1962. This workshop is the only one of its kind in which a participant can earn graduate credit and one of the few devoted to the administrative phases of a transportation program.

Participants will attend committee and group sessions on pupil behavior, and on bus routing and scheduling, safety practices, cooperation with the State Highway Patrol, bus specifications and purchasing, and insurance practices.

Building in Georgia. One-half of Georgia's 4,158 schoolhouses were built in the past decade; 45 of them, containing 786 classrooms, were completed in 1961. All together Georgia's public school property is valued at more than $600 million.

★ ★ ★

A quiet place. After finding that many students do not have a quiet place to study at home, administrators of Englewood School District No. 1, Arapahoe County, Colorado, are keeping the high school library open two evenings a week.

DOLPH CAMP

The counselor and student-separation plans

COUNSELORS AGREE that every student should leave high school with a desirable, realistic plan for the next step in his life. This is not a new doctrine in guidance, but today's exigencies demand a new emphasis on it.

Most counselors believe that a student should start a career-education plan soon after entering high school, if not before. They realize that career planning is not simple. It means exploring career opportunities, narrowing the field of choice, selecting two or three possible careers, considering them thoroughly, selecting one of them, and, finally, outlining an educational or employment program in line with the career choice. Counselors know that many students do not follow so orderly a course in choosing their careers and that the time they take to plan varies considerably, from years to days. But no matter how the student arrives at his plan, no matter how much time he devotes to it, the counselor's goal remains the same—a desirable, realistic plan for every student by the time he leaves high school.

A plan is "desirable" if the student is interested in following it and if it is acceptable to society. It is "realistic" if its goals are in line with the student's abilities. Thus a student's desirable, realistic plan is his outline for taking the next step toward suitable education, suitable employment, or both.

A separation plan goes through two phases, development and completion. The developmental phase consists of what the student, his parents, his teachers, his counselors, and others do to enable him to reach the point at which he can begin to complete his plan. The completion phase consists of those activities which bring the student from high school to employment or to college. He should accomplish this during his final semester in school.

Because they recognize that the developmental phase is the foundation for the completion phase, counselors are usually diligent about influencing each student to develop a plan. Many counselors, however, make the great mistake of leaving the student too much on his own during the completion phase. Textbooks, professional magazines, and educational anthologies also neglect this part of the guidance program.

Let us consider several students, each one typical of a group, and show how the counselor can work with each one to help him complete a desirable, realistic separation plan. Since each student's plan will be tailormade, it will differ from the others in permanence, breadth, specificity, and flexibility.

LEON is an able student who has had a career in mind since childhood—one that follows parental aspirations. He has chosen a college. The counselor does this:

1. He finds out what Leon's plan is—what career he has in mind, the college he has selected, whether he has been admitted, and other essential information, such as availability of funds to finance his education.

2. He studies data on Leon's ability, aptitudes, and skills.

3. He evaluates the plan in the light of Leon's potential and gives due attention to the appropriateness of the college selected.

4. If the plan seems suitable, he reviews it with Leon and calls attention to any changes he should make.

5. If the plan does not seem suitable, he talks to Leon and perhaps to his parents to explain the weakness of the plan and to offer help in making a more desirable one. If they are determined to follow the original plan, the counselor can do no more—the decision is theirs.

6. He records the results for the school record.

KENNETH is another able student, but his family has limited means and does not consider higher education necessary. In conference with Kenneth and his parents, the counselor stresses the importance of college for gifted students. Kenneth decides he wants to go and convinces the counselor that he is in earnest. The counselor helps him obtain a scholarship to a college which seems to offer

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the best education in the field he wants to enter. But, even counting what his family can contribute, Kenneth finds that he cannot finance his freshman year. The counselor does this:

1. He reviews data on Kenneth's ability, aptitude, and skills.

2. He examines the offerings of the selected college in the light of the tentative choice of a career.

3. He encourages Kenneth to seek a loan from the college or a part-time job.

4. If the plan seems unsuitable in any way, he points this out to Kenneth and offers to help with the making of a more suitable plan (but he leaves the final decision to Kenneth).

5. If all seems favorable he writes up the plan as tentatively complete.

MARVIN, an average student, has selected an occupation which requires ability, aptitudes, and skills far above those he possesses, and the college he has chosen is one in which he will probably fail. The counselor does this:

1. He meets with Marvin and his parents to explain why students with patterns of ability similar to Marvin's have difficulty succeeding in the college he has chosen. (It may be necessary to have him seek admittance and be rejected.)

2. If Marvin and his parents agree that a less demanding college is in order, he helps them to select one. It may be necessary to explore small colleges or junior colleges.

3. If necessary, he helps Marvin select courses in line with his career goal.

4. He encourages Marvin to complete his plan and works with him until he does.

5. He writes a brief summary of the plan for the record.

NOLEN is a student whose ability, aptitudes, and skills are insufficient for success in even the less demanding colleges. Since the seventh grade he has planned to enter employment from high school. Neither he nor his parents see any need for higher education. He is of legal working age and ready to work. The counselor does this:

1. He finds out all the details of Nolen's employment plans: Does he have a job? What is it? Is it as good as he can get? Is there opportunity for promotion? Is it permanent or temporary? Is it steady or seasonal? Is it local or distant? Does it require tools or other equipment? Is it with a good firm?

2. If Nolen has been unable to find a job alone, he helps him to find one, but limits his aid to what Nolen cannot do for himself: he provides information and suggestions. Under his permissive supervision Nolen has all the experience in job finding that he can get. The counselor suggests specific moves, such as consulting the public employment service, seeing certain employers, writing letters to distant employers or agencies, practicing the oral presentation of his case, and so on.

3. He keeps encouraging Nolen by stressing that every interview is an opportunity, every experience an asset—and he keeps Nolen so busy that he cannot be discouraged.

4. He keeps working with Nolen until he finds work.

5. He helps him arrange for additional training in night school or other part-time adult education classes.

6. He writes up the separation plan, or records the fact that it is not complete.

WALTER, a student who makes low grades, has failed many of his subjects, and has no encouragement at home to continue his education, is determined to drop out of school. He has no plan for the future. The counselor does this:

1. He reviews all the facts about Walter, for such a case requires him to have an unusual grasp of the facts. The student's family and community background may be more important than his record in mathematics and English.

2. He talks with employers and employment services about Walter to acquaint them with the facts about his leaving school, his abilities, characteristics, and goals.

3. He encourages Walter to seek employment on his own—to visit employment services, to apply to employment offices in industry, and to be on the lookout for employment opportunities in general.

4. He assures Walter it will be all right to give his name as a reference.

5. He continues working with him until he has a desirable, realistic plan.

6. He writes up the plan for the record.

Though the problems and plans of each student were different, the counselor took three important steps in each case to help the student complete a plan.

1. He mastered the essential facts about each student—and encouraged the student to master these facts himself.

2. He tried to help each student understand and evaluate realistically the appropriate courses of action. To do so, he drew on his knowledge of the courses of action open to each student—his knowledge of career and educational opportunities and how they were related to the facts about each student.

3. He interviewed each student to assist him in making a plan or to assist him in evaluating the plan he had.

In each case the counselor also recorded the plan for the school record. It is important that he do so for this helps the school to have a complete record on the student and to have useful information to refer to if the student calls on the school for help at a later date.

I do not mean to imply that the treatments proposed for these five students are exactly the right ones for all other students in the same categories. Nor do I mean to

imply that these five types are the only ones, for there are many others, such as the girl bound for marriage, who, if she goes to college, will go only for cultural gain, and the student who has long planned to go to college, is financially and scholastically able to go, but suddenly decides in his senior year not to go. The five treatments described here are proposed only in the hope that they will throw light on the treatment the counselor should give any student about to separate from high school.

Let us assume that all five students separated with desirable plans. Three went on to college; two to employment. We feel reasonably certain that the first four will make out. But what of the fifth—the dropout?

Our counselor was fortunate in that he could help Walter find employment. Many dropouts are without work. Their plight indicates that every student should start early to plan for his future. If the counselor starts working with students as early as the seventh grade, he may be able to influence many students who might otherwise drop out of school to continue until graduation, or to influence those who drop out to have desirable, realistic plans for the future when they do. Many of our young people are unemployed because they left school without plans or with plans they could not or would not follow.

Though in recent years counselors, teachers, school administrators, editors, labor union officials, employment office advisors, PTA members, civic club members, businessmen, social workers, and church group members have all stressed the importance of remaining in high school until graduation, one in every three ninth-graders fails to finish.[1] That many of these dropouts leave school without a realistic plan is evident. A million out-of-school young people, ages 16 to 20, are unemployed. Counseling alone will not solve the problem of unemployed young people, of course, but effective counseling can assist in solving it. A favorable solution to the dropout problem will result in the employment and education of more young people and the lessening of juvenile delinquency. Part of the solution may lie in good guidance.

The task of influencing each student to have a plan before he separates from high school is a demanding part of the guidance program. It is a part too often left to chance. Many counselors find it easier to stimulate a pupil to begin a plan than to see that he finishes it. No counselor can consider that he has done his job, however, until the student separates from the high school with a desirable, realistic plan for the next step in his life.

[1] National Education Research Bulletin, vol. 38, No. 1, February 1960. Approximately the same ratio is given in Office of Education statistics on dropouts, which show that over 31 percent of students enrolled in the ninth grade of the public schools during 1956–57 failed to graduate in 1960.

Manpower Training Act

ON MARCH 15, 1962, President Kennedy signed the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (Public Law 87–415). Its purpose: to "appraise the manpower requirements and resources of the Nation, and to develop and apply the information and methods needed to deal with the problems of unemployment resulting from automation and technological changes and other types of persistent unemployment." Broadly stated, its provisions are these:

Title I. Manpower requirements, developments, utilization.

Requires the Secretary of Labor to (1) determine the effects of technological changes on manpower, establish ways of detecting the effects in advance; (2) study employment practices which affect worker mobility; (3) appraise the Nation's efforts to meet manpower needs and recommend adjustments; (4) promote, encourage, or conduct programs of information on manpower needs; (5) arrange for research into ways that promise to fulfill the objectives of the act; and (6) develop, compile, and publish information on skill requirements, job opportunities, and national, State, and local labor trends.

Title II. Training and skill development programs.

Requires the Secretary of Labor to determine what skills the Nation needs, work out policies for developing and using these skills, and promote broad training programs to equip workers with the skills they need. It also requires him to encourage State and private agencies, employers, labor unions, and trade associations to give on-the-job training, and to contract with them to do so.

Requires the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to make agreements with the States to provide training for persons the Secretary of Labor refers to him. The Secretary has delegated this responsibility to the Division of Vocational Education of the Office of Education.

Title III. Miscellaneous.

Provides for miscellaneous matters, such as those bearing on the apportionment of funds, the States' own efforts for vocational education, and the use of other Government facilities and services. It defines terms, prescribes limits on the use of funds and on the authority to contract; and authorizes these appropriations.

Fiscal year	*Title I*	*Title II*	*Title III*
1963	$2 million	$97 million	$1 million
1964	$3 million	$161 million	$1 million
1965	$3 million	$161 million	$1 million

To plan and start the program, the act authorizes $5 million for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1962.

ALBERT R. MUNSE

State funds for education

IN 1949–50 the States contributed an estimated $2 billion of State revenue to local public schools; in 1959–60 they contributed more than $5 billion; and in every year between they contributed successively larger amounts than the year before. During this 10-year period they have had several reasons for increasing their support for public elementary and secondary schools; the primary ones are these:

They accept responsibility for sharing in the financing of schools.

They recognize the burden that the increases in enrollment and in costs of goods and services place on local districts.

They are aware of the increasing needs for general and special education.

It is the funds that States provide for the specially supported programs that I am concerned with here. The programs vary from State to State, but for the country as a whole they include school facilities, special education, pupil transportation, textbooks, vocational education, driver training, school lunch, health services, school libraries, and courses for adults—day or evening.

Mr. Munse is assistant specialist in school finance in the Office of Education. He is the coauthor of two Office publications on State finance programs for public schools and several publications in the series Federal Funds for Education. *His most recent publication is* Revenue Programs for the Public Schools in the United States: 1959–60.

Precise figures for the amounts States provide for special-purpose programs are not always available, as some States report them as an inseparable part of the general-purpose program, which may provide for all items in their school budgets. Furthermore during the decade some States changed their method of reporting; some that had reported them separately merged them with their general-purpose grants; and others began to report them separately.

Because of these limitations and the rapid, extensive, and sometimes erratic changes in amounts during the past 10 years, my analysis covers only the five special-purpose programs that were most frequently mentioned in State reports during the years from 1949–50 to 1959–60.

The figures shown in the table for the special-purpose programs merely identify some of the factors in the general pattern of increases in State grants and the relative emphasis States have placed on certain school services. They do not, however, represent the total State support for the purposes listed since the grants that were not reported separately are included in the general-purpose items. Moreover these figures differ from others published by the Office of Education since they include only the amounts that could be separately identified and followed throughout the 10-year period.

The general-purpose figures show the general pattern of increase in State grants. As they are not sharply enough defined for analysis and comparison, percentage figures are not included; amounts are shown only to provide control figures.

School facilities.—Judging by the increases in their support for education in the years between 1949–50 and 1959–60, the States considered school building needs as the most pressing problem in school finance: In 1959–60 they distributed 9 times the amount they had in 1949–50. During this period seven States that had not previously reported separate grants for school facilities began reporting them, and other States significantly increased their contributions. The largest increase occurred between 1949–50 and 1953–54, when the amount more than quadrupled. After this period of expansion it is not surprising that the ratios of increase between the periods were smaller.

The trend has been toward larger and larger State grants for school facilities. As all predictions agree that enrollments will continue to rise and that many districts will soon reach their debt limits on financing school construction, the States will, in all probability, continue to increase their grants for facilities.

Special education.—The second largest increase in State support was for special instructional services for children who are physically or mentally handicapped or others for whom special arrangements are necessary. The 1959–60 total of all States was 5½ times the 1949–50 total. The increase was used either to enlarge existing programs or to establish new ones.

There are at least two sound reasons for predicting that States will continue to increase their grants for special education. First, the experiences of

State funds for education: 1949–50 to 1959–60

Purpose of distribution	Amount of State funds [1] (thousands of dollars)				Ratio of amounts—			
	1949–50	1953–54	1957–58	1959–60	1959–60 over 1949–50	1953–54 over 1949–50 (4 Years)	1957–58 over 1953–54 (4 Years)	1959–60 over 1957–58 (2 Years)
Total	$1,985,490	$2,888,573	$4,413,804	$5,184,193	2.61	1.45	1.53	1.17
General-purpose	1,834,417	2,607,497	3,943,953	4,620,001				
Special-purpose:								
School facilities	19,966	86,267	147,925	175,239	8.78	4.32	1.71	1.18
Special education	20,724	36,466	84,915	114,392	5.59	1.76	2.33	1.35
Transportation	49,610	74,963	119,618	144,791	2.92	1.51	1.60	1.21
Textbooks	17,203	27,771	33,289	40,185	2.34	1.61	1.20	1.21
Vocational education	23,953	29,906	35,256	40,149	1.68	1.25	1.18	1.14
Other purposes [2]	19,617	25,703	48,848	49,506	2.52	1.31	1.90	1.01

[1] Includes only the grants reported separately throughout the period; those not reported separately are included in general-purpose.
[2] Includes driver training, school lunch, health services, school libraries, and adult or evening classes.

State and local agencies in providing special education programs have shown that even broader programs are needed and that larger numbers of children should be provided for. Second, the State government is in a central position and has the capacity to observe the needs, to coordinate programs, and to give leadership and services to local programs.

Transportation.—State increases for the other three programs listed in the table are far less dramatic than those for school facilities and special education. Transportation figures reveal a trend similar to the one for total State support. Apparently grants for this purpose have, in general, been stabilized in their relationship to general support, probably because school transportation has long been an accepted item in State-supported programs. Unless States recognize new requirements, the trend in transportation support will probably continue to parallel the trend in total support.

Textbooks.—Compared with funds for total State support, funds for the purchase of textbooks increased significantly from 1949–50 to 1953–54, but very little from 1953–54 to 1957–58. The 1957–58 ratio does not differ greatly from that of the total State support.

Much of the variation in textbook support may be caused by the nature of the program and the kind of plans States use in apportioning funds. In States that have a textbook-support program the legislature over a period of years has generally seemed to be satisfied with a fixed amount of money per pupil despite increasing costs of textbooks. Pressures from the public for financial assistance to keep abreast of costs are not as strong as those for some other programs. Although the States will very likely continue to increase funds for textbook programs, the trend will probably be similar to the 10-year trend.

Vocational education.—The smallest ratio of increase in State support is shown for vocational education. Let me emphasize, however, that this ratio, like the others, is computed only on the funds that could be separately identified and followed during the 10-year period. Actually the States distributed enough additional funds to raise the ratio appreciably.

Over the 10-year period the need for skilled occupational workers has continued to increase, as have State funds for vocational education. However, the need for men and women highly trained in the professions has led to a greater emphasis on academic excellence for college preparation. The lesser increase for vocational education suggests this preference. Considering the current pressures and Federal programs for college trained men and women, future State support for vocational education will very likely reflect the same emphasis.

Other special programs.—Almost all the increases for special-purpose programs other than the five reviewed were earmarked for driver training, school lunch services, day or evening classes for adults, and school health.

ALL FIVE of the special programs have one characteristic in common: As need for the program has increased, the States have increased their support. If the States react in the same way to all school needs, they will continue to increase their support as enrollments and costs, the prime factors in school needs, continue their upward climb.

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